The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 7, 1886.

The Week.

THE Boston *Journal*, while printing in full the speech of Senator Evarts at the Merchants' Association dinner, which was mainly occupied with the silver question, finds it "impossible to say whether he would vote for the repeal of the law providing for compulsory silver coinage." Not daunted by this difficulty, however, the *Journal* overhauls the report of the Paris Monetary Conference of 1881, and quotes two extracts from the speech made by Mr. Evarts in that meeting, which it thinks will suffice to answer the question which the distinguished orator failed to answer at the Boston dinner. After due and careful examination of both the Boston speech and the two extracts, we are unable to agree with the *Journal* that the deficiencies of the former are made good by the latter. We beg to remind that painstaking newspaper that it is one thing to favor international bi-metallism, and quite another thing to favor the repeal of the compulsory-coinage law. When, therefore, the *Journal* declares that a person who supports the former must necessarily hold "that this result is deferred rather than hastened by the continuance of compulsory silver coinage," it runs ahead of the orator and ahead of any known facts. Nearly all the supporters of the Bland-Allison Bill favored international bi-metallism. The first Paris Conference was authorized and called by the very bill which set the compulsory coinage going, and the second conference was authorized by the same party that authorized the first. So it is a *non-sequitur* to say that the supporters of international bi-metallism are in favor of repealing the Bland Act. The truth is that some of them are in favor of repeal and others not. Which class Mr. Evarts belongs to has not been made known by himself, although he occupied considerable time at Boston with the silver question.

At one point in his speech Mr. Evarts appeared to be on the very threshold and verge of declaring his opinions on the matter under discussion, but just as he had roused expectation to the highest pitch he disappeared in a cloud and made himself invisible, like an Eastern necromancer. The most that he could say that was intelligible was, that the question is to be decided by the nation and not merely by Congress, and that the nation is to act upon Congress by pressure on the one side and on the other. There is nothing so certain to secure results in Congress as pressure in cases where Congressmen do not know which side they are on. No law in physics can be relied upon with greater confidence. We should be inclined, therefore, to award to Mr. Evarts credit for a notable aphorism if he had told us which of the two sides was likely to develop the greater amount of pressure. If he had even told us on which of his own sides he felt the most pressure, we should have been wiser than we are. We suggest now that he make a speech and tell what his views really are on the silver question. Pressure is all very well in its way, but it should be borne in mind that there are many people who do not know on which side they ought to press, and that they look to Senators and Representatives in Congress to tell them. The Boston *Journal* hints that Mr. Evarts is holding back his views for delivery in the Senate, not wishing to anticipate himself by a premature announcement of them. This is quite possible, but, however lucid his exposition of them may then be, we shall still think that he has done himself an injustice by not contributing something beforehand to the pressure by which his vote is to be decided.

A few years since a tempest broke loose in the West and South on the head of the Secretary of the Interior in consequence of his endeavors to put a stop to depredations on the timber lands of the United States. Mr. Schurz was charged with every sort of infamy, including cruelty to women and children, because he had sent out a few special agents to report facts and to obtain evidence for the prosecution of the more unprincipled violators of the law. The Senate of the United States took up the matter, and several speeches were made in which the Secretary was denounced as a Prussian and a despot, as an oppressor of the widow and the fatherless, and as a tool of railroads and grasping monopolies. If he insisted that the laws were made to be enforced against individual woodcutters, he must have a private motive, and this could be no other than a desire to hold the Government timber for the eventual enrichment of soulless corporations. The spectacle presented, as a consequence of this endeavor to put a stop to a peculiarly injurious form of theft, was not an encouraging one to his successors in office, yet it is believed that some very valuable forests were saved from destruction, and that considerable money was turned into the Treasury that would otherwise have gone to swell the profits of lumber companies and railroad contractors. It was never proved that any widow was prevented from collecting dry twigs sufficient to boil her dinner, that being the dreadful apprehension of Senator Sargent, of California.

The same kind of a tempest has now broken on the head of Commissioner Sparks of the General Land Office. That glaring frauds have been and are daily committed under the homestead, preëmption, and timber-culture acts, involving millions of acres of land, and that these frauds militate against the actual settler more than against anybody else, has been matter of common notoriety for years. Yet so much has public attention been taken up with "forfeited land grants" to railroad companies that no effective action could be secured to protect the public domain against a far greater evil. Whatever may be said of forfeited or forfeitable land grants, none of them involve the crime of perjury. The facts upon which a railroad makes claim to land under act of Congress are open, patent, and cannot be concealed. They are triable before the Land Office and before the courts, and they are not so numerous that they cannot all be tried. Not so the fraudulent seizure of land under private entries. Here nearly everything depends upon the oath of the entrymen, and the cases are so numerous that only now and then can one of them be tried by way of sample. The result is that perjury has become the common method of acquiring title to the public lands, and the beneficent intentions of the homestead, preëmption, and timber-culture laws have been to a large extent frustrated and brought to naught. But this is not the worst. Numerous cases are reported where bona-fide settlers have been driven from their claims by fraudulent entries alongside of them, made by "cowboys" in behalf of cattle companies, cutting the settlers off from the water courses and isolating them from the society which they expected in time to collect about them.

Our wood-choppers must be protected. Their gallant efforts to cut down our remaining forests must be encouraged. We have given them a bounty of 20 per cent. as against the pauper woodchoppers of Canada, but that is not sufficient. The pauper bag-manufacturers of England are selling sugar sacks to the Cuban planters at such low rates that the Cuban demand for hogsheads has been cut down to a mere nothing, and the cooperage industry is crippled. Acting upon the grand theories of protection and the noble principle of asking Congress to do something whenever anything goes wrong in trade (for which we have so many valuable precedents), the hogshead makers have petitioned for a discriminating duty of one-quarter of a cent per pound on sugar imported in sacks, in order to compel the Cubans to buy our hogsheads. This is a fine idea. It is apparently borrowed from an old English statute which, in order to help the weavers in a period of depression, required that all corpses should be buried in woollen shrouds.

The prohibition in Mr. Edmunds's Utah bill of female suffrage in the Territory has brought him into collision with Mr. Hoar, who maintains that all women not "plural wives" ought to have the franchise, and points with pride to the results of female voting in Wyoming and Washington Territories. Mr. Edmunds offered a sort of compromise by promising to support the majority of women in any State or Territory in demanding the franchise; but, under this rule, should he not take the sense of the Utah women before abrogating the local law which has enfranchised them?

If any Republican in the country is qualified to speak with knowledge regarding the situation in the South, it is certainly ex-Gov. Daniel H. Chamberlain, of South Carolina, who discusses the present aspects of the Southern question with noteworthy candor in the January number of the *New Englander*. Mr. Chamberlain takes the somewhat unnecessary pains to expose the impossibility of curing the trouble by Senator Sherman's quack remedy, prescribed on the stump last fall, of reducing the basis of representation in those Southern States where

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the Republicans do not poll as many votes as the party managers at the North think they ought to poll, and rightly concludes that there is no practicable constitutional remedy. He then points out—and it should be remembered that it is the Republican ex-Governor of a Southern State who says this—that "the evil in question is plainly the result of the want of intelligence, experience, and good judgment on the part of the class who are deprived of the right to vote, and of the race prejudice and political ambition of the class which inflicts the wrong, intensified and made reckless, in respect to the right to vote, by the insupportable corruption and maladministration of most of the Southern State Governments from 1868 to 1876." He confesses that such results as we now see at the South are inevitable "whenever in any community those who hold nearly all its property, intelligence, and experience in self-government are set against those who are for the most part without property, education, or experience of public affairs." Such being the case, the course for those who sincerely want to see a better state of things is, in his opinion, to "abandon all efforts to prolong, through party proclamations and appeals, a controversy which has resulted so disastrously to those in whose interest it has professedly been carried on," and to leave the problem to solve itself, through the progress of intelligence, as, by the admission of all, it is now doing. In short, the true policy, in Mr. Chamberlain's view, might be summed up in four words, "Furl the bloody shirt."

The Pacific Coast delegation in Congress has agreed upon a new anti-Chinese bill, which is intended to make it still more difficult than it is now for a Mongolian to surmount the wall of exclusion which has been built against his race. The San Francisco *News Letter*, however, does not think that the proposed changes would accomplish much, and says that "the home of the oppressed of all nations has got to erect many more barriers before it will succeed in keeping the little brown man out." Meanwhile there are some signs that public sentiment in California is beginning to revolt against the un-American warfare upon foreigners from China, which the worst foreigners from other nations have been thus far permitted to wage by native citizens. The editor of the San Francisco *Argonaut* tells the truth in such plain words as these:

"The refuse and sweepings of Europe, the ignorant, brutal, idle offscouring of civilization, meet weekly upon the sand-lot in San Francisco, to determine whether respectable, industrious foreign-born citizens and native-born Americans shall be permitted to treat Chinese humanely and employ them in business vocations, or unite with this idle and worthless foreign gang in driving them into the sea."

The inaugural address of Mayor O'Brien, of Boston, fully justifies the confidence of the Mugwumps whose votes gave him such a large majority last month. After referring to the great responsibility imposed upon the Mayor by the new charter, and remarking that if the Mayor employs this power to stop waste and extravagance, he makes determined enemies of men whose sole object is public plunder, he describes his own course during the past year and lays down his policy for the coming year in these plain words:

"Regardless of threats, regardless sometimes of adverse criticism from parties who do not understand the true facts, I have given no quarter the last year to any who have abused the trusts confided to them, and, with such an emphatic endorsement from my fellow-citizens, I feel encouraged to go on with the work. Political tricksters who have merely some selfish purpose to gratify, will receive no countenance from me, no matter what party they may be identified with for the time being."

Mr. O'Brien shows that he clearly understands the cause of bad city government when he says that "it is by yielding to these men, on account of the few votes that they control, that municipal governments, in all the large cities of the country, have become a synonym for waste and extravagance and corruption"; and he points out the only way to secure reform, in this admirable passage:

"If political parties put unscrupulous men to the front, they ought to be voted down. If political parties make combinations with men whose morality and integrity are questionable, such combinations should be discouraged and discountenanced by every good citizen. If no quarter is given to men who have no moral principle behind them, who connect themselves with leading parties merely for plunder, they will soon be stamped out, and the business of the city will be conducted, like any other large corporation, on business principles."

The Democratic papers which felt so sure a few weeks ago that Mugwumpism was stamped out, are invited to study with attention these words of Boston's Democratic Mayor.

We find in the Boston *Herald* some remarks addressed to General Butler in reference to the alleged shortage in his accounts with the National Soldiers' Home, which are so pertinent that an early and specific response from him appears to be in order. The *Herald* alludes to the fact that the Military Committee of Congress reports a shortage in the accounts of $200,000 in bonds and $21,000 in cash, and thus comments:

"General Butler is getting along in years, and whether we consider him or the Soldiers' Home, a part of whose endowment seems to have disappeared, there is a demand for prompt action. General Butler has testified before a Congressional committee that he kept some of the accounts of the Home with his own private accounts, and appears to have profited by holding large balances belonging to the Home; and the question now is whether he abstracted the funds of this worthy institution and used them for his own benefit. We should be sorry to believe that a man credited with large wealth would yield to such a temptation, however much he might love money, and General Butler, who seems to have no political purpose to serve at present, cannot afford to live under the imputation of theft, especially theft of this particularly infamous character. Let us have the question settled in the courts."

This is very disagreeable talk for the General to hear from a newspaper which is printed in the city where he lives, and which is the most widely read journal in the State of which he was a few years ago the Governor. As the lifelong friend of the soldier, as the avowed champion of the laboring man, and as only a year ago the candidate of the People's party for the Presidency, he cannot afford to remain quiet under a direct intimation that he has stolen money from soldiers, and, what is much worse, disabled soldiers. By all means let him take the matter into the courts.

The *Evening Post* prints an article, translated from the Berlin *Nation*, on the general fall of prices of which the whole civilized world is complaining, and we commend it cordially to the attention of those who think that it is possible to put prices up by some piece of fancy legislation. It is not scarcity of gold or silver, or any other form of currency, which is making things cheap. Money in any form is not scarce. It is abundant, and can be had at low rates by any one who thinks he can employ it profitably. Gold is not scarce, and cannot, in the nature of things, be monopolized by any one country. Whatever is the currency of the civilized world, wherever it may be, lies at the order of any nation which is in unusual need of it. No matter in what treasury or bank gold may be, any country which wants it can have it by lowering the prices of the commodities it has for sale. In fact, gold goes around the world, like the "ocean tramps," in perpetual search for a good market. It never rests or stagnates anywhere. Any community can have it by offering to sell cheaper than its neighbors. Moreover, there is little or no prospect that we are going to see again what we used ten or fifteen years ago to consider high prices. The chances are that we are now passing through a period which ten years hence will be considered by those who look back a period of high prices. The means of transportation and of communication have been so much improved, and are improving so rapidly, that whenever in any corner of the globe signs of dearness or scarcity in any commodity show themselves, it is speedily deluged with supplies from every other corner. The gradual disappearance of the great commission houses in every country illustrates the cheapening process as well as anything. Formerly foreign trade was almost entirely carried on by these houses. Dealers in other countries relied wholly on them for their information about the home market, and sold their goods through them. Now every dealer learns all he wants to know about foreign markets by telegraph, and makes his offer directly by the same medium, so that transactions which used to take from three to six months are arranged in an hour or two.

In fact, dearness, that is, difficulty in procuring the good things of this life, and above all the kindly fruits of the earth, is being rapidly hunted out of the world by civilization. Every discovery, every invention, cheapens first one thing, and then and in some degree all others. There is no use in trying to stem the tide by playing tricks with currency, or piling up high tariffs. These are only the temporary expedients at best. The volume of supplies which human industry now creates every year is too great to be long stayed by any dam that any one nation can construct. The grain and cotton trade, which we commented on a week ago, illustrate this admirably. The monopoly which we enjoyed in these things is clean gone, and it is gone because steam and the advance of order have opened up vast fertile regions which were fifty or even twenty years ago, for all practical purposes, as far from the great markets of the world as if they were in the moon. And yet we are only beginning to tap the new sources of supply. We are getting from India only a fraction of the quantities of cotton, wheat, tea, and coffee which she will probably turn out in ten years from now. The same thing may be said with regard to other commodities, of South America, of our own great Northwest, of New

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Guinea, and above all, of Central Africa. The productiveness of all these vast regions is simply a question of railroads and soldiers to keep order. The notion that we can save ourselves from them by "poor man's money," or scarcity patents like the tariff, is simply an immense hallucination. The cheapening process is one which has been going on, now slowly, now rapidly, ever since the western world began to recover from the fall of the Roman Empire, and it will continue to go on until the human race has exhausted its powers of extracting sustenance and comfort from the earth. We shall of course every now and then have a good deal of squealing over it from various sects of economists and socialists, who think they can now and then get the better of nature by acts of Congress; but, like the squealing we are now listening to, it will pass. Nature has in her time disposed of a great many cranks and visionaries, as well as of a great many types and species, and to her they may be safely left.

Interesting evidence that the average length of human life has been steadily increasing for some time past is deduced from a comparison of the ages at death of Yale College graduates early in the eighteenth century and late in the nineteenth. Mr. Dexter's recent volume on the annals of that institution from 1701 to 1745 shows that of 473 graduates during that period 153 lived beyond 70 years—that is to say, 32 out of every 100. On the other hand, of 672 alumni whose deaths were reported between 1875 and 1885, there were 271 who had passed their seventieth year—or 40 out of every 100. To put it in another way, during the first half of the eighteenth century a graduate stood only 32 chances out of 100 of becoming a septuagenarian, while in the last quarter of the nineteenth century he stands 40 chances out of 100 of reaching that age. The gain in longevity is naturally greatest among educated men familiar with the laws of hygiene, but this showing is hardly more striking than that recently made in England of the extent to which the average of human life has been prolonged within the past forty years.

The action of the Virginia Legislature on Saturday will relieve Northern Republicans of one apprehension aroused by the victory of the Democrats in the November election. It will be remembered that the Republican Convention in Virginia last July adopted a resolution in favor of generous appropriations by the Legislature for pensions to disabled rebel soldiers. This became one of the chief issues in the canvass. The Richmond *Whig*, the Republican organ, insisted that the only way for the voters to insure such pensions was to elect a Republican Legislature, and it appealed to the record in support of this claim. It declared that "it was the Bourbon usurpers who killed the bill in the last General Assembly to appropriate $10,000 to aid in establishing the home for Confederate veterans," while "the Republicans did their best to pass it;" and it recalled the damning fact that at the extra session in 1884 "Mr. Hazlewood, Republican, introduced a bill to appropriate $65,000 for the relief of enrolled and certified disabled soldiers of Virginia, and the Bourbon usurpers killed it." The pledge of the Democratic Convention to remember the faithful Confederate soldiers was denounced as unworthy of belief when made by a party with such a record. The overwhelming victory of the Democrats must have aroused the keenest apprehensions regarding the fate of these rebel soldiers, and the Republican organs have been fully prepared to denounce the successful Bourbons for their expected infidelity to the Confederate cause. But the organs are not to enjoy the satisfaction of saying "I told you so." The Democrats have really turned over a new leaf, and a bill was passed on Saturday which makes as liberal an appropriation for the relief of disabled soldiers as could have been expected if the other party had been in the majority. But the organs have one consolation left—they can at least "point with pride" to the adoption of the policy of pensioning rebel soldiers by the Virginia Democrats as only another illustration of their claim that Democrats everywhere are always imitating Republicans.

The beginning of the American opera season on Monday evening was an event of national importance, and we are glad to see that it is so generally recognized as such by the press of the city. The artistic merits of the performance are considered elsewhere in these columns. The projectors of the undertaking gave an admirable proof of the sincerity of their purpose in the character of their first night's work. There was no clap-trap and no attempt to score a cheap "popular" success. The management had other works in their repertory much more likely to make a "hit" than the one chosen, but they wisely preferred to set their standard first and then show the resources of their company afterward. They are aiming to found an American school of music, not simply to make money out of a season of opera, and they are evidently convinced that the best way to succeed is to avoid spread-eagleism and do simple, earnest, and thorough work. They have shown at the outset that America can furnish a conductor, an orchestra, and a chorus second to none in the world, and that is surely a firm foundation upon which to build. They are confident of showing within the next few weeks that America can furnish solo artists, also, who will not fall far short of this high standard. Whatever the measure of their success, the patriotic character of their endeavors entitles them to the heartiest public support and coöperation.

The *Christian Intelligencer* says: "The sensation of the year has been the revelation by the *Pall Mall Gazette* of moral rottenness among the upper classes of English society." A Christian intelligencer ought not to make such statements, especially in the last week of the year. There is no truth in this one. The *Pall Mall Gazette* has made no such revelations. There may be moral rottenness among the upper classes of English society, but the *Christian Intelligencer* knows no more on the subject this year than it knew last year. But it is true that the *Pall Mall Gazette* did make "a sensation" by the publication of some stories of extraordinary indecency.

The reported Conservative scheme of local government for Ireland, consisting of County Boards and a "Central Council," will probably fail disastrously from the outset, for the simple reason that no representative bodies can be made to work without the approval and support of their constituencies, and the Irish will now accept nothing which cannot be called a "Parliament"—that is, which will not have more extensive authority than will be bestowed on a "Central Council." In fact, it is interesting, though melancholy, to see how faithfully Englishmen are following the old lines in dealing with this new and most serious Irish crisis. First, there is the scoffing, abusive stage; then the furious, coercive stage, both of which have been passed in this case. Then comes the stage of considering whether there is not something reasonable in the Irish demands, followed by a small offer, that is, an offer of all that the most anti-Irish Englishmen can be got to agree to. This the Irish accept, but only as an instalment, and keep up the row. Then come savage denunciations by the English press and orators of Irish "ingratitude," accompanied by magazine inquiries into the nature and origin of Irish ingratitude, and its connection with Celtic blood, and then after awhile all begins over again. The argument behind Parnell, which works while he sleeps, and which every day makes greater inroads into the English mind is, "How does an Ireland like the present one contribute to the strength and unity of the Empire?"

M. Leroy-Beaulieu has been raising a great outcry in the *Économiste Français* over the responsibility towards savings-bank depositors incurred by the French Government. The Treasury takes charge of all the funds of the banks, and guarantees 3½ per cent. on them. It holds now the enormous sum of $444,800,000, all of it, of course, payable on demand. It is estimated that not over one-half of these deposits belong to poor persons. The other half belongs to shopkeepers in good circumstances, who, in order to get over the law limiting deposits to $400 for each person, will often have a book for each member of the family in both the ordinary and postal savings banks, and in savings banks in different localities, so that their united claims will sometimes amount to $4,000, $5,000, or $6,000, all of which they can call for at any moment, and on all of which they receive a higher interest than any other demand loan on equally good security will bring. Attempts have often been made to get this interest reduced, but they have always failed before the fear of offending the working classes in the large towns. This demagogy is now producing its natural result. It has burdened the Government with an immense floating debt, a large part of which might be called for peremptorily at some serious crisis in national affairs, and compel once more a suspension of payments, as in 1848. M. Leroy-Beaulieu finds in the Treasury practice of treating the deposits as cash on hand an evil almost as great, because it constitutes a resource outside the regular budget which is constantly tempting the Finance Minister into small extravagances.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 30, 1885, to TUESDAY, January 5, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

CONGRESS reassembled on Tuesday. Senator Beck, rising to a personal explanation in the Senate on Tuesday afternoon, said he had made no attack on the President as regards the silver question. All he opposed was the policy of locking up so much money in the Treasury. He said then, and he was not sure that he did not believe now, that if a cyclone came and scattered all this money to the winds of heaven and the people gathered it up again, it would be better than the present policy. That was all he meant

Contrary to expectation, Speaker Carlisle did not announce his committees in the House on Tuesday.

The bill introduced in Congress proposing to allot the lands in severalty to the Indians in the Indian Territory and open up the country to settlement, is creating much excitement among the Cherokees. The opposition to alienating any lands belonging to the Cherokee Nation is intense. Their National Council has adopted resolutions declaring: "That the United States has not now and never has had any right to appraise, take, or purchase any unoccupied portion of these lands, or to appraise any occupied portion or acquire any right therein, save by and with the consent of the Cherokee Council of the Nation."

When the Sub-Treasury in this city opened for business on Saturday morning, Mr. C. N. Jordan, the Treasurer of the United States, was present to take charge of the office. Mr. Acton refused, however, to turn over the office to him, upon the ground that he should be exposing his bondsmen to loss until he could turn over the office to an officer appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. For an hour no business was done, the vaults being under seals placed there on Thursday by Mr. Jordan. At 11 o'clock Mr. Jordan, as Treasurer of the United States, took the responsibility of breaking the seals and beginning business. Mr. Acton made no objection, and Mr. Jordan took control.

It is believed that the President will nominate ex-Comptroller Andrew H. Green to be Assistant Treasurer of the United States in this city.

Mr. Valentine P. Snyder, who had been advanced through several positions in the Treasury Department, was on Wednesday appointed Deputy Comptroller of the Currency in place of J. S. Langworthy, resigned.

Secretary Manning gave another proof on Saturday of his adherence to the reformed civil-service system. The case of Owen Kellar, of Ohio, whose appointment as clerk after a successful civil-service examination Auditor Chenoweth and Congressman A. J. Warner, of Ohio, tried to prevent, will be remembered. Mr. Kellar was on Saturday appointed a permanent clerk, having served satisfactorily through the six months of the probationary period.

Mr. Cannon, Comptroller of the Currency, intends to accept one of the eligible offers that have been made to him to go into the banking business in New York. He may not retire for some months, and it has been intimated that the Administration would be glad to retain his services. Probably he will wait until the silver discussion has taken shape in Congress, and until Secretary Manning has had ample time to select a competent successor.

The boycotting of Democratic fourth-class postmasters is reported at the Post-office Department to be increasing. Citizens in some places refuse to mail letters or to purchase stamps at the home offices, and thus reduce the compensation of postmasters. The number of offices under a boycott of this kind is said to have reached 300.

The croakers will find it difficult to believe that under the administration of the Civil Service Act a colored man has secured admission to the Post-office Department. John T. Morton, of Arkansas, however, who was recently notified by the First Assistant Postmaster-General that he had been selected for appointment as a $1,000 clerk, proves to be a colored man. His papers showed that in the examination he had been graded 73, and was a school teacher. Nothing more was known about him; his race was unknown. The Revising Board of the Civil-Service Commission had no knowledge of the applicant, except what appeared upon the record.

The United States Supreme Court has dismissed the appeal of Paymaster-General Smith, holding that an officer of the army or navy may be tried by court-martial for actions which are demoralizing in their nature or tend to bring the service into disrepute; though such actions may have no direct connection with the military duties of the defendant as an officer of the army or navy.

The Court of *Alabama* Claims adjourned *sine die* on Thursday. On the previous day it completed its final lists of awards in the war-premium cases, signed them, and made formal delivery of them to the Secretary of State, who is required by law to certify them to the Secretary of the Treasury for payment *pro rata*. The exact amount found due was $10,705,371 43. The interest added raises the amount to over $16,000,000, but this has only been calculated in order to comply with the strict letter of the law; nobody expects to get a cent of interest, and not much more than 50 per cent. of the principal. The total expenses of the court will amount to about $400,000. This includes over $150,000 for printing, etc., made obligatory by the law, and a like amount for the services of special counsel in all parts of the world where testimony has had to be taken. The expenses of the previous Court of *Alabama* Claims, which had only one class of claims to deal with—those covered by the Geneva award—and the aggregate of whose business was less than one-fourth of that of the present court, were $254,000.

Governor Hill's inauguration at Albany on Friday was conducted with great ceremony. He was escorted from the Executive Mansion to the Capitol by a long procession. Judge Learned administered the oath of office, and the Governor then made a long speech, closing by promising to be as much a reformer as Governor Tilden was.

The canvass for the Speakership of the New York Assembly practically closed on Sunday in favor of General Husted, and at 11 o'clock on Monday forenoon the surrender of the Erwin camp was formally made. Early in the morning Mr. Erwin's friends held a conference, and, after looking the situation in the face, decided to give up the contest. Mr. Arnold, of Otsego, one of Erwin's chief workers, was delegated to go to General Husted bearing the white flag. This mission Mr. Arnold accomplished successfully. Erwin entered his canvass for reëlection as Speaker with popular sentiment in his party opposed to him by reason of his action as Speaker last winter. In addition to this, for some ulterior reason, he had against him one of the strongest arrays of party managers that has been seen in Albany for years.

Both branches of the Legislature met at noon on Tuesday, and organized by the election of the caucus candidates—Mr. Pitts for President pro tem. of the Senate, and Mr. Husted for Speaker of the Assembly. The Governor's message was received and read. The most significant thing about his utterances is that even he feels the necessity of commending the work of civil-service reform and urging its continuance. He takes practically the same ground this year as last in favor of municipal reform in New York, urging the wisdom of giving the city the power of self-government, and pledging his coöperation for all genuine reform measures. He utters the usual commonplaces about industrial interests, and throws a sop to the "labor vote" by saying that the Legislature "should generously favor whatever concerns the welfare of the toiling masses." On the prison-labor question he has nothing new to say. He recommends the abolition of the Board of Regents, as being the regents of a university which has in fact no existence, and the transfer of their powers and duties to the Department of Public Instruction: the abolition of the Board of State Charities and the creation in its stead of a single Commissioner of Charities; and the abolition of the State Board of Health and the substitution for it of a single Health Commissioner. The first public appearance of Lieutenant-Governor Jones and Secretary Cook, the former in presiding over the Senate, the latter by delivering the oath to members of the Assembly, is generally commended. Mr. Jones's address was conservative and in good taste.

Mr. Frederick Cook, the new Secretary of State, and Comptroller Chapin on Friday awarded the legislative printing to the Albany *Argus* Company.

The new Board of Aldermen of this city was organized on Monday and received the message of Mayor Grace. The Mayor says that it is doubtless true that the cost of the government of the city of New York is in excess of what it should be: one cause for this is alluded to in the question of legislative interference which the Mayor discusses. But that New York is misgoverned to anything like the extent claimed by the Council of Reform, is not true and cannot be maintained. The Mayor considers that the Park Department has done well and made a fair showing.

Among the articles of incorporation filed with the Secretary of State at Albany on Monday was that of the American-Pasteur Institute of New York City. The objects of the Institute are the gratuitous care and treatment by the Pasteur system of inoculation, or such variations thereof and improvements thereon as science may develop.

Ohio Republicans say that before the election for United States Senator in that State it is the intention to unseat the Democratic delegation from Cincinnati in the House, which will give the Republicans a working majority on joint ballot. The plan of the Sherman managers is to postpone the Senatorial election until this can be done. Otherwise the majority would be so small as to make a combination against him possible.

The Connecticut Supreme Court has decided that Yale students who are residents of New Haven only as students cannot vote there.

Major Kellogg, with a detachment of United States troops from Fort Ringgold, on December 29 routed a large band of Mexican revolutionists from the State of Tamaulipas who were occupying an island on the Rio Grande River near Rome, Texas, which belongs to the United States. The revolutionists crossed over to the Mexican bank of the river, and, under cover of darkness, took possession of the famous neutral island which has caused so much contention between the United States and Mexico.

The Lancaster National Bank, of Clinton, Mass., has closed its doors pending an investigation. The President, William H. McNeil, it is reported, has fled to Canada. The institution has been placed in the hands of the Bank Examiner. His investigation so far indicates that McNeil is an embezzler to the amount of about $100,000.

A fire in Detroit on Friday destroyed the immense seed warehouse of D. M. Ferry & Co., White's Theatre, and several buildings belonging to the estate of E. A. Brush. The total loss is more than $1,000,000, the greater part of which falls on D. M. Ferry & Co.

John B. Raymond, ex-Delegate to the Forty-eighth Congress from Dakota, died on Sunday at the age of forty-one.

Professor Charles E. Hamlin, of the Harvard Museum of Natural History, died at his home in Cambridge, Mass., on Sunday, of

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pneumonia. He was sixty years of age, and was graduated from Waterville College when twenty-three years old. He was Professor of Natural Sciences in Waterville until about fifteen years ago, when he was called to the Harvard Museum of Natural History. In that department he was one of the best informed men in the country.

N. D. Wendell, who was elected Treasurer of this State on the Republican ticket in 1879, died suddenly at Albany on Tuesday. He was fifty years of age.

J. B. Lippincott, of Philadelphia, the well-known publisher, died on Tuesday.

FOREIGN.

Mr. George Otto Trevelyan, formerly Chief Secretary for Ireland, made a speech at Stratford on Wednesday evening. He said that there could be no half way between the complete separation of Ireland and absolute imperial control. Unless it was intended to keep the care of the law and order in the hands of the Central Government it would be better to repeal the Union Act. He condemned the proposition to give Ireland a Parliament and at the same time allow Irish members in the English Parliament. Mr. Trevelyan said that he was willing that a fairly elected Irish Council should be given the control of education, public works, and the poor laws, and that additional money be raised by taxation if more than the Exchequer supplied should be required.

Earl Cowper, who was Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland from May 5, 1880, until April 28, 1882, under Mr. Gladstone's Administration, has written to the London *Times* in regard to the Irish question. Earl Cowper says: "Home rule, for its own sake, is not desired by the Irish. Any one can see by a perusal of the Irish newspapers published during my own term of office in Ireland that they do not reveal a single mention of the home-rule scheme, but are solely involved in discussing the question of rents. The late Mr. Isaac Butt, who may be called the originator of the national and home-rule movement, and Mr. William Shaw, ex-member of Parliament for the city of Limerick, who was a member of the Home Rule League, but withdrew from that body in December, 1881, failed to attach the Irish people to their schemes, and Mr. Parnell will meet with the same fate, except in an appeal to their pockets. The strike against the payment of rent will soon be a bigger difficulty for the Government to deal with than was ever the home-rule question, and must eventually interfere with imperial interests."

Michael Davitt, in a recent interview, said: "If home rule is granted to Ireland, it is difficult for me to see how the Irish members can continue to sit in the Parliament at Westminster, unless the colonies are similarly represented in that body. The appointment of a prince of the royal family as Viceroy of Ireland would be a mistake, as Ireland requires a statesman of tact and brains to administer the Government, not a royal show."

The *Pall Mall Gazette* on Saturday said it was able to announce that Mr. Gladstone was ready to entertain a feasible proposal from the Marquis of Salisbury to concert jointly for a settlement of the home-rule question. The *Gazette* urged a coalition of the Liberals and Conservatives to deal with the subject.

Lord Randolph Churchill has submitted to the Cabinet a proposition for the reform of the administration of the Government in Ireland. The scheme is supported by the Earl of Carnaryon, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and by Baron Ashbourne, the Lord Chancellor. The project involves abolition of the viceroyalty and the Castle Executive, and the placing of Ireland on the same footing as Scotland, having a Secretary in the Cabinet. If the Cabinet adopts the measure, it will be presented to Parliament, together with the scheme for local government which has already been decided upon.

The Conservative local government measure to be laid before Parliament as drafted gives to Ireland a household franchise for electing county boards and for electing a central council. The proposition that the Crown should have the right to nominate a part of the council was abandoned. The measure also provides that the county boards shall have control of the traffic in liquor, and that the central council shall have a voice in appointing the magistracy. Parliament will meet on January 21.

Mr. Ruskin writes to the *Pall Mall Gazette* on the Irish question, "Would it not be well to take some account of the following uneradicable virtues of the Irish race in our schemes for their management? First, they are an artistic people, and can design beautiful things and execute them with indefatigable industry. Secondly, they are a witty people, and can by no means be governed by witless ones. Thirdly, they are an affectionate people, and can by no means be governed on scientific principles by heartless persons."

Frederick Harrison, in the annual address before the Positivist Society in England, said that the British Constitution since the franchise had been more democratic than the Constitutions of France and America, with less real reserve power. The Government had become the committee of a huge democratic club called the Commons. There was urgent need to form public opinion independent of politics and Parliament. Positivists favored a national government for Ireland, with legislative and executive power, but he trusted that the latter would not be purely democratic.

A proclamation was on Friday issued in England and India formally annexing Burmah to the British Empire. England cedes to China part of Upper Burmah, in order to make the Chinese and Indian frontiers contiguous.

General Prendergast, commander of the British expedition in Burmah, has arrived with his forces at Bhamo, 150 miles north of Mandalay, and met with a cordial reception from the Burmese and Chinese merchants. A strong British force will garrison Bhamo.

The minor Shan States have formed a coalition and are threatening to occupy Upper Burmah. Six hundred British troops have been despatched to that part of the country to suppress any such movement.

A report was current in London on Sunday that a number of fanatical followers of the Mahdi had penetrated the British lines at Suakim and attacked the soldiers in the streets of the town. It is stated that furious fighting ensued, in which a number of the English were killed or wounded. The Government, it is said, has suppressed the report of the affair, of which no further particulars have transpired.

British men-of-war have been ordered to blockade the coast of Egypt from Massowah to Suez in order to prevent the importation of arms and ammunition into the Sudan for the Arab rebels.

A despatch from Koyeh, on Wednesday, says: "Lieutenant-General Stephenson, commander of the British forces in Egypt, who recently arrived here with large reinforcements, attacked the rebels who had been menacing the garrison for several weeks. A three hours' fight ensued, resulting in the British troops capturing a village near Koyeh. The rebels were completely routed. The cavalry pursued the enemy. Two guns and twenty banners were captured. The English lost one officer killed and twenty-one men wounded. The Egyptian allies of the British lost six killed and thirteen wounded." The Arabs are estimated to have lost 600 men. They are reported to be flying in the direction of Dongola.

Henry M. Stanley does not believe that Bishop Hannington, the missionary seized by the King of Mombasa, in central Africa, has been put to death. The chief danger, he says, lies in the ambition of the whites.

The Walt Whitman fund in London amounts to £115.

The twenty-fifth anniversary of the accession of Emperor William to the throne of Prussia was celebrated quietly in Berlin on Sunday. The Emperor held a reception, which was attended by all the foreign ambassadors and diplomats in the city. In his conversations with the foreign representatives the Emperor avoided making political allusions. The Emperor gave an especially warm welcome to Prince Bismarck and Count von Moltke, and to General Viscount Wolseley, the representative of Queen Victoria. The Emperor stood throughout the reception. The city was gayly decorated with bunting during the day, and was illuminated in the evening.

Arrangements are in progress for a meeting of the Emperor of Germany, the Emperor of Austria, and the Czar during the manœuvres of the Austrian army in Galicia the coming summer.

The death is announced of Professor Johannes Minckwitz, the historian and poet. Professor Minckwitz was born in 1812 and had been Professor at the Leipzig University since 1861. He wrote a text-book on German versification, of which six editions have appeared. He was a well-known translator, wrote some original poetry, and edited the literary remains of Platen.

There is a wide breach between M. Brisson and President Grévy. It is rumored that the former has written to the latter refusing to lend himself any longer to a combination the object of which is to impose upon him lasting discredit. M. de Freycinet has not yet succeeded in forming a new ministry, but from present appearances it will contain most of the members of the Brisson Ministry. He has secured the support of the Radicals for his programme.

The treaty of peace between France and Madagascar, it is reported, cedes territory to France, surrenders the northwest ports which France originally claimed, and gives the French Government supremacy over the foreign relations of Madagascar.

Pasteur has undertaken at his own cost to cure eleven people who have been bitten by a mad wolf in western Russia.

An agreement has been arrived at between Madjid Pasha, the special envoy of Turkey, and Prince Alexander respecting the union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia. It has received the concurrence of the Powers.

The Balkan Conference at Constantinople has been abandoned, Russia refusing to guarantee the independence of the union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia.

A band of Spanish Republican revolutionists made an attempt on Friday to destroy a railway bridge in the Sierra Morena Mountains. Five members of the band were arrested.

Orangemen and Irishmen have resumed hostilities in Conception Bay, Newfoundland. An Orange mob recently attacked two of the released Riverhead prisoners at Courages Beach, wounding them fatally. There is great excitement in Harbor Grace, and a riot is anticipated.

At Matamoras, Mexico, on Saturday, the defeated candidate for Mayor, Torres, took possession of the town with a mob of supporters, and prevented the candidate who had been declared elected by the State Congress from taking his office. In the afternoon the mob fired on the Chief of Police. The city is still without any legal government.

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REASONS TO BE THANKFUL.

THERE is hardly any good Republican who voted for Blaine in 1884, who may not do something for his own political education by giving a portion of whatever time he sets apart for meditation at the beginning of the new year to the consideration of the fears about his country from which the experience of 1885 has delivered him. There were intelligent men—we knew many of them ourselves personally—who thought one year ago that the election of a Democrat to the Presidency would produce some terrible financial disaster so great as to threaten social order. We can recall one wealthy and still active and prominent Republican who predicted with much solemnity in November, 1884, that in one year from that date workingmen would, in the bitterness of their suffering, be knocking down and robbing the well-to-do in the streets of this city, without interference from the police. We know of another who, in a fit of mingled rage and despair, offered to sell his securities at fifty cents on the dollar.

All through the country districts, particularly in New England, there rested on the souls of Republican men, and particularly on the souls of Republican women, the shadow of a great fear, with which the Republican orators and journalists had for many years filled the air. How deep this shadow was, may be estimated from the fact that, in spite of the thorough knowledge of the machinery of their own government possessed by Republicans, vast numbers of them were thoroughly persuaded that a Democratic President would, in some manner, suddenly lower the tariff and thus produce a commercial crisis. Many of them forgot the power of Congress over the tariff, and the absolute inability of the President to touch it, as completely as if they were Frenchmen or Turks, and had never read the Constitution. The old gentleman who predicted the street robberies, and the gentleman who offered to sell his property at half price, had in their mind's eye a general closing of the factories brought about by some mysterious move of a Democratic Administration, the exact nature of which they had probably never thought out for themselves. The bulk of the party was, in fact, in that most melancholy of all situations in which the citizen of a free democratic country can find himself—a situation in which he sees at every election all that he holds dear put in imminent peril, in which the question is not which of two parties will best administer the Government, but whether the Government itself will last more than three months.

The result was that Republicans went to the polls and mounted the stump in the alarmed, if not desperate and reckless, frame of mind of men who feel that they are on the eve of a battle which will dispose of both life and fortune. A long succession of political contests conducted under such conditions would of course in the end have proved fatal to constitutional government. Men long tormented by such fears finally become ready for any refuge from them—even despotism itself. The man who firmly believes that only one of the two parties into which his fellow-citizens are divided can be safely intrusted with the Government, is really half ready for some change which will make popular elections an idle form. The deliverance of the country from this hideous nightmare during the past year is, we do not hesitate to say, a blessing only second in importance to the suppression of the rebellion, and hardly less necessary to the safety, honor, and welfare of the nation. For it all Americans, of all parties, ought at the opening of the new year to be profoundly thankful. It means at last real peace and real security.

Only one degree less valuable is the deliverance from the Southern bugbear, which also the past year has witnessed. Nothing but actual experiment would have sufficed to destroy the old tradition of the slavery period that the Southern people had interests different from or opposed to those of the North. There was in the Republican party a widespread belief that if they got into power, or if a President were elected by means of their votes, they would in some manner, which (as with regard to the power of the President over the tariff) few examined seriously for themselves, take immense sums of money out of the Treasury—one estimate of the amount was $3,000,000,000—and divide it among themselves, partly as compensation for the emancipated slaves and partly as compensation for other damage sustained during the war. How they would get hold of this money, how they would persuade people to lend it to the United States, if it were not to be secured by taxation, and how they would manage to have the taxation borne by the North exclusively and not by the South, was never explained, and probably few people ever asked themselves. The phrase, "the Confederacy again in the saddle," was in fact considered a sufficient answer to all cynical demands for minute particulars.

Moreover, although it was the pride and boast of the Republican party that the war had destroyed slavery, and although it was a cardinal article in the Republican creed that it was slavery which made the South hostile to the Union, nevertheless until last year the fact that slavery was really dead was never thoroughly brought home to the minds of the voters. Very much like the man who still feels pains in the leg he has lost by amputation, the party still felt the pangs of the old South in their bones, and nothing but a Democratic triumph would ever have relieved them. In the imagination of multitudes, the Yanceys, the Rhetts, the Brookses, and all the other fire-eaters were still brandishing their plantation whips, and preaching the degradation of labor, and threatening dissolution for the sake of the peculiar institution. Cleveland's election may be said to have banished all these phantoms from the Northern brain. There is no sect of Republicans so strict that one cannot raise a smile in it by speaking of "rebel claims," or produce silence and a little shamefaced melancholy by asking, "How is business?" or what Cleveland is going to do with the tariff. In short, the country is entering on 1886 with a freedom from care and anxiety and dismal forebodings such as it has not known since the agitation against slavery began; and this great salvation we owe—so mysterious are the ways of Providence—to the very recklessness with which the Republican party defended itself. In nominating Blaine it took counsel of nothing but its fears, and yet the very badness of the candidate at last has brought it peace.

NEWSPAPER LYING.

THE President's somewhat vehement letter about newspaper lying contains only one inaccuracy, and that is in saying that "there never was a time when newspaper lying was so general and so mean as at present." We think on the whole there is less just now than there has been for twenty-five years. The lying in the late canvass was, of course, tremendous, owing to the character of the Republican candidate. It was not possible to save him or defend him without a woful disregard of truth. But this was an exceptional period. For many years we think there has been a tendency to improvement. Twenty years ago there were editors who were rather proud of lying if they made money by it. The number of these is much reduced. Some of them are dead, and others have turned over a new leaf, and have become more truthful as they have grown older.

But the lying of the press which the President denounces must exist as long as there is a strong public demand for it; and that there is a strong public demand for it nobody can deny. In the first place, the public itself lies a good deal, or, if that be too strong a word, tells a great many stories that are not true. One often hears the newspapers denounced for their inaccuracy by people who are themselves guilty of inaccuracy almost every time they open their mouths to narrate anything. The way "things get wrong in the newspapers" is in fact simply a repetition of the way they get wrong in the mouths of nearly every one who retails the gossip of the day. The stories one hears at dinner-tables and "at the Windsor," and in brokers' offices, and in clubs, about things of which the story-teller has not personal knowledge, are distorted, exaggerated, embellished, docked, or lengthened, just as they are in the most reckless newspapers. In fact, human nature and not editorial or "reportorial" nature, is at the bottom of most newspaper inaccuracy, although it is freely denounced by persons who themselves cannot give a straight account of anything outside their own business

Moreover, there is in the worst newspaper lying—that is, lying about the private lives and character of individuals—so much money that it is almost asking too much of newspaper proprietors to ask them to refuse to indulge in it. One of the most melancholy social phenomena of the day is the appetite of a large portion of the community for odds and ends of gossip, no matter how dirty or how ghastly. The venders of it find that it does not, as far as the returns are concerned, make the slightest difference whether it is true or false. In fact, they find that corrections or contradictions of amusing or thrilling stories only bore their readers, and therefore they do not make them. The more of such stuff a journal publishes the "newsier" it is considered. This is, in fact, so much the case that the word "news" has ceased in the journalistic vocabulary to connote truthfulness. It means simply something which, no matter how big a lie it may be, the reader has not seen before, and which is likely to entertain him for two or three

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minutes. The condition of mental vacuity and vapidity, not to say imbecility, to which a very large portion of the youth of the great cities is being reduced by dawdling over this stuff every day, as their only intellectual food, is something which moralists may well contemplate with concern, for the appetite is stimulated by the food. The more of it a man swallows the more he wants and the less interested he becomes in the serious things of life, in the real affairs of the nation, in the great events of the day, in the doings and sayings of leading men, and the progress of great movements, and the ups and downs of his own race. A person who spends twenty minutes of his morning reading a minute account of the suicide of a drunken washerwoman, without caring in the least whether it ever occurred, and greatly enjoys it, is in no mood, even if he had any time left, for the discussion of any topic, no matter how grave, which does not touch his bank account.

It must be remembered, too, that nothing does more to encourage and promote the habit of mendacity in the press than our system of party warfare. "Loyalty to party," as it is called, is so strong among us that most newspapers have, in order to live, to make devotion to the party one of their chief features, and it is melancholy but true, that there is no party which will tolerate a truthful "organ." An Organ may be allowed to avoid lying for its own side, but this is as far in the direction of the veracities as it is ever allowed to go. Truth-telling about the other side is never permitted. It is essential, in order to keep its place, and get the party advertising; and be circulated by the Committee, that it should at least suppress all news which seems likely to reflect credit on the other party, or, if it publishes it, comment on it in such a manner as to make it seem false or discreditable. A party editor may not be required to go further than this, and invent lies of his own, but if he does it of his own accord, he certainly does not suffer in the eyes of the managers, many of whom find it as difficult to see how to get along without lies as to get along without spoils.

On the whole, therefore, we think the President would have been more just and accurate if he had said that there never was a time when the demand for lies was greater than it is now, and when more money and fame could be got by manufacturing and circulating them, and when the market for trivial and minute lying about accidents and offences was more buoyant, and when discovery and exposure damaged a newspaper liar less in the eyes of his customers.

THE INDIANS' LAST STAND.

THE person unfamiliar with the history of the North American Indians who reads Mrs. Jackson's 'Ramona' will be very apt to conclude that the writer's descriptions of the terrible wrongs to which her Indian characters are subjected are the fanciful pictures of a novelist. If he follows the same writer through the pages of her purely historical work, 'A Century of Dishonor,' he will be forced to confess that the actual wrongs to which tribe after tribe has been subjected by the Government of the United States have been quite as terrible as any that the novelist describes; but he will naturally comfort himself with the reflection that, unjust as has been our course in the past, we have, under the influence of Quaker Commissioners and a more general interest in the subject, formed an Indian policy that is founded on right and justice, and that when we punish Indians, they are not those who are accepting in good faith the means to become civilized that the Government offers them, but only murderous wretches who can be quieted in no way but by extermination.

But even this last position the observer will have to abandon after reading the latest report of the Interior Department, in which he will learn of Utes compelled to go to the mountains for game (because their agent had not rations enough for them to keep them alive and their reservation had been denuded of wild animals), and of their being attacked there without provocation by whites, their men, women, and children being shot down; of the "pitiable" condition of the Pueblos under white men's legislation; of the manner in which Indian tribes, nominally under the care of the Government, are left to the mercy of rapacious cattle-men in making pretended leases of their lands, the very agents of the Government, who are supposed to be the Indians' guardians, "sharing in the profits of these speculative transactions"; and of railroads running through lands to which the Indians have exclusive rights, "without having paid a penny to the Indians as compensation therefor." Finally, if the comforting thought be entertained that, with the present aroused public opinion, measures are certain to be taken to protect the Indian in his rights hereafter, it is only necessary to examine some of the bills already introduced in the present Congress to find out how delusive is even this last hope.

The principal part of the public domain set apart for the Indians is that which is appropriately known as Indian Territory. It comprises only about one-forty-fourth part of the land of this nation—surely a small enough part to assign to the remnant of that people who once possessed the whole. When the Indian Territory was selected as a place for a union of tribes, it was so far in the distant West that it seemed to be out of the way of the advancing civilization of the present century. We can give to the tyrannical power which forced the Cherokees away from their hereditary homes in Georgia at least this credit, that it believed that the new home selected west of the Mississippi was safe from the white man's greed. The mistake made was due simply to an inability to anticipate the filling up of the far West under the influence of mining attractions, railroad development, and the pressure of immigration. Already, with the century incomplete, the white man has gone beyond this new stopping-place of the Indian, and is demanding that "the requirements of civilization" be complied with as of old.

How it is proposed that this shall be done Senator Van Wyck, of Nebraska, has set forth in a bill which he has made haste to introduce. This bill, in brief, proposes to set up a Territorial government over the whole of Indian Territory, with a Governor, Territorial Legislature, etc., and to open formally to settlement by the whites the lands ceded to the United States by the Creeks and Seminoles in 1866 and the Cherokee strip, which have come to be known as Oklahoma. There is a sop to justice in the bill in the declaration that nothing in it shall be construed as impairing the rights of the Indians under the laws and treaties of the United States; but this would be meaningless verbiage if the bill became a law. Its practical result would be to turn over to white settlers land in the Indian Territory which the Government of the United States has no right so to dispose of; to wheedle the least intelligent tribes into selling other lands for a like purpose; and, by thus mixing up the white and red races, to cause that inevitable degradation of the latter which always follows such a union.

Secretary Lamar, in his very honorable and intelligent discussion of this subject, says: "Movements of population eastward and northward and southward have gone on with unprecedented rapidity, until every reservation is closed in and pressed upon by colonies of settlers, miners, ranchers, and traders. The practice of moving the Indian to more distant reservations can be continued no longer. He must make his final stand for existence where he is now. Unless he can adapt himself to the necessities of these new conditions, his extinction will be sure and swift." That he is adapting himself to such conditions in the Indian Territory, witness the rapid civilization of the Cherokees, who are again appealing to the nation to save them from another robbery; that he will never adapt himself to such conditions when brought side by side with the whites, witness the degradation of the Onondagas in this enlightened State of New York.

There is but one policy which this Government can adopt in regard to the Indian Territory consistently with honor and justice: that is, to hold it intact as the dwelling place of Indian tribes. "Keeping the Indian reservations from the settlements of white men," says Secretary Lamar, "is a policy which, in my opinion, should be more rigidly enforced." If that policy is to be the keynote of the present Administration, the theft from these Indians of their last possession by means of such a measure as Senator Van Wyck's will be at least postponed until the inauguration of a new Executive. The argument that the reservations in the Indian Territory are larger than the tribes on them need, furnishes no excuse for giving any part of them to the whites. The Federal Government holds them as a trustee for the Indians; and it will be a hundred fold better to let some acres remain uncultivated and unoccupied rather than that all shall be given over to the rapacity of white "boomers." With the increasing pressure of white settlers on the scattered reservations outside of the Indian Territory, it is fortunate that there is room within its boundaries for those whom "civilization" is certain to displace at no distant period.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

BOSTON, January 4, 1886.

THE third annual meeting of the Modern Language Association of America was held here on December 29 and 30. The Association has a large and enthusiastic membership, but many of the leading colleges and scientific schools are still unrepresented at its meetings. In this respect it

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fairly reproduces the prevailing interest in scientific and linguistic research. The papers presented covered a wide field, embracing the results of special investigations, methods of instruction, and the place of the modern languages in modern culture and in university education. With its continued existence the Association has defined more nearly its own aims. The broad domain presented by the French and Spanish languages, which still survive in this country, and the study of local dialects which is so important from an historical standpoint, afford an ample field for original research. At the earlier meetings the existence of the society was threatened by numerous representatives of schools and of fanciful methods of instruction, each of whom sought to give prominence to his theories, and this was followed by a warfare on the classics and classical culture. These two tendencies have happily disappeared, and the recognition of the value of the various elements in modern culture has been fully established. It remains, however, as a part of the future work of the Association, to secure a fuller perception of the necessity of instruction in modern languages in the smaller colleges, and their official recognition in the instruction of the secondary schools.

The meeting was opened by an elaborate paper on the "Place of Modern Languages in American Colleges," accompanied by a tabular statement of the amount of instruction given in French and German in the leading colleges, the requirements in those languages for admission, and the order of their study. It was shown that the smallest amount of instruction given in any college was eight per cent. of the entire curriculum, while in the larger colleges, such as Harvard, Cornell, Michigan, and Toronto Universities, a student might devote fifty-six per cent. of his entire course to French and German literatures. A marked advance was chronicled in the last few years, especially in the historical study of these languages. The excellent work done in the Canadian universities was commended. The paper, while disclaiming any purpose to discuss the value which should attach to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, mentioned incidentally that Dalhousie College, the Johns Hopkirs University, the University of Oregon, Randolph-Macon College, South Carolina College, and Swarthmore College confer the degree of B. A. without any knowledge of Greek. Tulane University goes further and confers the degree for a commercial course and for one in the mechanic arts. Harvard University and the University of Toronto require an entrance examination in Greek; the Johns Hopkins University permits French and German to be substituted for Greek as a requirement for admission; nearly half the colleges present a course in philosophy for which the degree of Ph. B. is given, or an equivalent course in letters with the degree of B. L., in which Latin is required, and French or German substituted for Greek for admission.

A multiplicity of degrees was characterized as a curse of our educational system, and a reduction of the number of degrees and a unifying of their value were strongly urged as necessary to rescue our degree system from merited contempt. The paper insisted upon the necessity and wisdom of introducing thorough instruction in French and German in all our secondary schools, where there is now a waste of time and dissipation of interest by teaching superficially a perplexing variety of subjects which might better be pursued later. A mastery of the elementary subjects required for admission to college is not now attained. It is the law of educational history that the higher demands always condition and give direction to the lower, and the colleges should unite to elevate and give character to the instruction in all high schools and academies. Modern languages should be required for admission, both because they can be acquired better in early life, and because, if begun later, adequate time is not afforded to enable a student to obtain a comprehensive knowledge of their literature. The study of English upon the historical method was recommended, and in this and in later papers it was urged that English is more inadequately taught in the public schools than either French or German.

Next to promoting the interests of the study of the modern languages in the colleges and secondary schools, the work of the Association lies in original investigation. Several valuable papers of this character were presented. One of the most interesting was upon the "French Language in Louisiana, and the Negro-French Dialect," which contained a list of words, idioms, and grammar. The Creole French remained pure, as the youth were educated in France; French teachers and priests contributed to preserve its character, the services of the Catholic Church especially being an important element. The Acadian French of the Teche district has suffered manifold mutilation of forms. In the discussion which followed, the French of this region was said to have been in part Germanized from the presence of a German colony in the vicinity, and the word Teche was said to be a corrupt form for *Deutsch*. Mr. Cable's French, which he puts into the mouth of educated Creoles, was called "an absurd, contradictory, and impossible jargon." The French of the region of Acadia, in Nova Scotia, and on the St. Lawrence, was pronounced remarkably pure, although exhibiting the features of the original French language of the period of colonization.

Two other papers of this character deserve mention, viz.: upon the "Collective Singular in Spanish," a use ignored in most French and Romance grammars; and "Remarks on the Conjugation in the Wallonian Dialect." A paper upon "The Place of English in the College Curriculum" was a vigorous plea for the scientific study of English, and for a larger recognition of its rights in college instruction. A paper on "Modern Language Study in Ontario" gave a valuable résumé of the system of education in Canada, and the successive steps by which the study of French and German had advanced in the public schools. Other papers, pedagogical in character, were presented upon "College Instruction in Modern Languages: What Should Be Taught?" "On the Use of English in Teaching Modern Languages," "Requirements in English for Admission to College," and "German Classics as a Means of Education." One of the best papers was on the "Real-gymnasium Question in Germany," in which an attack was made on the famous address of Professor Hoffmann. It presented forcibly the discussion in Germany which followed the "Berlin" report.

On the whole, the papers presented at this session were a distinct advance. The transactions of the last two meetings will be issued in a single volume. A congratulatory message was received and answered from the section of the Association of German Philologists and Schoolmen which is devoted to the modern languages.

THE IRISH ELECTIONS AND THE STRUGGLE IN ULSTER.

LONDON, December 22, 1885.

THE elections in Ireland have been not only the most dramatically interesting of all the recent contests, but the most momentous in their ultimate political results. Any one who had watched the tendency of events in that country might have foreseen them. Many English observers did foresee them. But they have struck the mass of Englishmen with a surprise which has not yet realized all they import.

When the last Parliament ended, Ireland was represented in the Imperial Parliament by about forty-seven Parnellites; nearly thirty Gladstonians, twenty of whom were moderate Home Rulers and the rest regular Liberals from Ulster; and twenty-five Tories. Now there are eighty-five Parnellites, eighteen Tories, and not a single Liberal. If we look at the geographical distribution of these members, we find that the Parnellites hold all the seats in Leinster, Munster, and Connaught (except the two for Dublin University), and in the Ulster counties of Donegal, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Monaghan. They have thus, while extinguishing the Liberals, driven the Tories into the northeast corner of the island. Of the seats in the three Roman Catholic provinces, twenty went to them unopposed. In the remainder, candidates, sometimes Tory, sometimes Liberal, were put forward by a recently-formed association of persons zealous for the British connection, called the Irish Loyal and Patriotic Union. But these candidates obtained in nearly every instance a very small fraction of the vote cast. In West Clare, for instance, while the Parnellites had 6,763 votes, the Loyalists had but 289; in North Cork the numbers were 4,902, against 102; in South Mayo 4,900, against 75; in East Kerry 3,069, against 30. In fact, the only constituencies outside Ulster in which the Loyalists made a tolerable fight were in the divisions of Dublin County and Dublin City. These numbers reveal such overwhelming Parnellite strength that many people blame the Union for having attempted such contests. They allege that their object was partly to put the Nationalists to expense, partly to get the case against legislative independence put fairly before the people; and argue that to have allowed seats to go uncontested would have been as damaging as to poll even the wretched minorities they have secured.

It is worth while to examine more closely the fortunes of Ulster, a region specially interesting, because its Protestant population will form one of the difficulties in the way of granting Mr. Parnell's demands. I have already observed that four out of her nine counties have been captured by the Nationalists. They are counties in which the Roman Catholic population largely predominates, and in Ireland religion has again become (except in the landlord class) an unfailing guide to political sentiment; and they are Roman Catholic because they lie furthest from that Scottish coast whence came the Protestant colonists of Ulster in the seventeenth century. In four other counties the Parnellites have effected a lodgment, capturing one seat out of the two in Derry, one out of three in Armagh, three out of four in Tyrone, one out of four in Down. Only Antrim remains untouched, while of the total thirty-one seats they obtained all but the half—fifteen against sixteen. Seen by the light, therefore, of this election, Protestant and loyal Ulster practically shrinks into the five northeastern counties, while even of these one, Tyrone, is three-fourths Nationalist. Of all their successes in the general election, this is the one which has given the Parnellites most pleasure. Ulster has been the crook in their lot, the home of a sturdy race who hated and defied them. Whenever they claimed to represent the Irish nation, Englishmen threw Ulster in their teeth, and asked what the Protestants of that province, energetic, industrious, pugnacious, would say to a repeal of the Union. In winning half Ulster, they therefore deem themselves to have taken a vast step toward the subjugation of the whole island.

How, it may be asked, has it happened that the sixteen seats which the Loyalist party has retained in Ulster have all been gained by Tories? Eleven Liberals ran, and every one of them was

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beaten—a strange result, considering that it was Mr. Gladstone who passed the Land Act of 1881 which so greatly bettered the position of the tenant farmers. The causes are curious and deserve to be put on record. In the five Protestant and semi-Protestant counties of Ulster there are three parties nearly equal in numbers to one another: the Liberals, who are almost wholly Presbyterians; the Tories, who are either Episcopalians or Orange Presbyterians; and the Roman Catholics. In every constituency, except, perhaps, one or two divisions of Belfast, where Toryism is very strong, any two of these parties are numerous enough to outvote the third. At all previous general elections the struggle has been between the Liberals and the Tories, and the Roman Catholics have usually voted with the Liberals. This adhesion, while it gave the Liberals a temporary advantage, contributed to damage their candidates in the eyes of Protestants generally, because in Ulster religious animosities are still keen, and the ignorant Protestant looks on a Catholic as his natural enemy. This feeling, joined to the power of the Tory landlords over both their Protestant and their Catholic tenants, had given the Tories the large majority of Ulster seats up to 1880, when the Liberals, by the help of the Catholics, carried a good many. Then came the lowering of the electoral franchise, which in Ireland was a lowering in boroughs as well as counties. It might have been expected to work in favor of the Liberals, because the Episcopalians are chiefly in the richer classes. But it has worked against them. For while Liberalism is strong among the tenant farmers in the counties and the middle classes in the towns—persons who previously enjoyed the suffrage—the new voters, workingmen and agricultural laborers, are mostly either Presbyterian Orangemen or Roman Catholics. Now the Orangemen vote Tory, and the Roman Catholics obey with singular docility the bidding of their leaders—that is to say, of Mr. Parnell.

When the present general election approached, there was a prospect of a sort of triangular duel between the three parties, and the idea at once occurred to both the Protestant parties that, as their differences from each other were smaller than the differences which divided them from the Parnellite enemies of the Union, some sort of combination ought to be made whereby they should secure as many Ulster seats as possible for Loyalist candidates. One or two Liberal leaders talked of an arrangement with the Parnellites against the Tories, but the general Unionist and Protestant sentiment of the Liberal Presbyterians condemned such an alliance. Negotiations were accordingly instituted between the Tory and Liberal party managers. In two cases these negotiations led to a fair arrangement, which was honestly kept. The Liberals of North Tyrone promised to support the Tory candidate for that division if the Tories of East Donegal would support the Liberal in that division. Both observed their bargain, but while the Tory carried against a North Tyrone Parnellite by 400, the Liberal lost East Donegal to a Parnellite by 1,100. Elsewhere the Liberals were, as they say, jockeyed, or, at any rate, outmanœuvred by the Tories. In some places they ran candidates against a Tory, or against both a Tory and a Nationalist, and were beaten; in others, feeling their weakness, they left the Tory to fight the Nationalist and looked on. This happened especially in the two remarkable cases of Londonderry City and West Belfast. The Parnellites allege that the Liberal chiefs had promised that their voters should stand neutral in these constituencies, leaving Nationalists and Tories to fight it out. The Liberals deny the promise, and add that they could not control their voters, who are by no means so docile as the Parnellites. What is certain is that in these two boroughs the Parnellites attribute their defeat, in both cases by very narrow majorities, to the fact that some Liberals voted against them for the Tory candidate. This is probably true, and no one who knows the strong Protestant feeling of the Ulster Liberals will be surprised that many should have voted for a Tory rather than see the Parnellites make good their boast that they would capture seats in historic Londonderry and ultra-Protestant Belfast.

But the material point is that these contests determined the action of the Parnellites in the county constituencies, where the polling came on a later day. Already disposed to damage the Liberals in Ulster, as they were damaging them in England, resentment at their behavior in Londonderry and Belfast led the Nationalist chiefs to throw their voters everywhere on the Tory side. In Antrim, in North Down, in Londonderry County, the Catholics went for the Tories, and the Liberals were hopelessly routed. Another curious incident must be noted. In two divisions of Belfast there was a split in the Tory camp, and independent Orange candidates, representing the democratic working-class wing of the party, opposed the "regular" candidates brought forward by the hitherto ruling clique. The Tory strength was so great in these divisions that a Nationalist candidate had no chance. Accordingly, the Parnellites directed their men to vote for the Orange Democrats, as against both the regular Tories and the Liberals, and the surprising spectacle was witnessed of thousands of Roman Catholics casting their ballots for an Orange Grand Master (Mr. Cobain) in one division of Belfast, and in another for Mr. William Johnson, the most rabid Orange Protestant that even Ulster has produced, and who has won notoriety by nothing but his furious attacks on the Pope and the Catholic clergy. Such is the admirable discipline to which the Nationalist leaders have brought their army, even in a district where they are not supreme.

The impression produced by the elections on the Loyalist upper class in Dublin, and generally through the south and centre of Ireland, has been enormous. They are doing their best to minimize it to their own minds, and to the English, by declaring that the Nationalist League has skilfully organized itself so as to destroy freedom of voting. The enormous majorities recorded for Parnellite candidates are, it is declared, due simply to the coercion practised on the humbler class of voters by the Leaguers and the priests. Many have voted out of fear, many more have stayed away from the polls: the result is not to be regarded as an expression of the wish of the Irish people, but merely as a proof of the strength of the Parnellite organization, and so far as an additional reason for resisting, or even for suppressing it. Some of our journals and their Dublin correspondents, who do their best to misrepresent, no doubt quite honestly, Irish facts to English eyes, enjoy this kind of argument, and it is sometimes trotted out on English platforms. But it does not really blind the English. They perceive that a people, interrogated in the regular constitutional way, have returned, from four-fifths of the island, an all but unanimous answer, and they feel that they cannot, without far stronger evidence of intimidation than has yet been adduced, go behind that answer and deny its validity. They are therefore beginning to be much exercised in mind. Prima facie, the Irish seem to them entitled to have the self government they ask for. But would this self-government not land both Ireland and England in even greater difficulties than those of the *status quo?* While they ask this question, opinion in Dublin declares that nothing can well be worse than the *status quo.* All minds are unsettled, business almost suspended. There is a prospect of a general cessation of rent and a recrudescence of agrarian outrages. English government is beginning to be regarded, owing to the variations and vacillations of English parties, with something like contempt. The news, now generally believed though not formally authenticated, that Mr. Gladstone is prepared with a measure of home rule, has therefore startled Dublin less than England, for Dublin has begun to think all things possible. But it has startled Ulster most. For the respectable classes of Ulster, knowing and caring comparatively little about what passes in the rest of Ireland, have been living in what they now fear may turn out a fool's paradise of reliance on English sympathy. Y.

SARDOU'S "GEORGETTE."

PARIS, December 17, 1885.

YEAR after year I observe that French society abdicates in favor of the French stage. There are no *salons* left, but every night there are many theatres open. A new play by Dumas, by Sardou, by Pailleron, is a great event. There are still a few places where you can find a few discontented conservatives, a few dowagers, lamenting the wickedness of the time; but these modest meetings, to which only very few are admitted, where a new face always seems dangerous, do not recall the ancient *salons.* When society meets, it is only in great balls or routs, where you can shake hands, but exchange no words, and where you see your friends in the crowd of the anterooms or the staircases, while you are impatiently waiting for your carriage.

Society has lost its homogeneity, as well as its importance. The political parties are too much divided, and in each party there are coteries—what the English call "sets." The Élysée has its set, the Moderate Republicans have theirs; there are some Republican families, you might almost say dynasties, which keep their doors hermetically shut on the Radicals. In the world of finance, there are the *parvenus* and the *arrivés;* in the Faubourg St. Germain the fusion is not yet complete between the pure Legitimists and the Orleanists. It has become the fashion to remain as long as possible in the country, to stay during the hunting season in the châteaux (hunting has become as favorite a pleasure in France as it always has been in England). When people return to Paris they have, so to speak, no occupation; and then comes the time for the first representations. There is no good *première* without the presence of certain people. I have often asked myself what are the qualifications for the privilege of going to these *premières.* The press, of course, has many places; the great critics, such as Francisque Sarcey, of the *Temps,* are the lions of the occasion. On their judgment depends, in a great measure, the success of the play. But besides the critics and the journalists, there are many men of the world, gentlemen belonging to the fashionable clubs; there are the lions of the bourse, of the bank, of politics; and there are also many men and women who make a part of "Tout Paris" for no definite reason—familiar names, which come naturally to the pen of the persons who describe these *premières,* as they would describe a great race.

It is not unnatural that the dramatists should be very much afraid of this public of the *premières.* This public is thoroughly *blasé;* it is essentially frivolous; it has a very keen sense of the ridiculous; it is sometimes moved by a word, an attitude, an intonation; and it remains perfectly cold before scenes which are, in the writer's mind, the most pathetic. This public has a good and a bad influence. In my opinion, it has a good influence on the actors, as it will not bear anything false, pretentious, vulgar; it has a bad in-

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fluence on the dramatists, because it inclines them constantly to look for new and extraordinary combinations of passions and of characters. One after the other our dramatists have brought on the stage types which were formerly excluded. Alexander Dumas gave the signal with the "Dame aux Camélias" and the "Demi-Monde." Sardou has within a few days brought out a new piece, which is called "Georgette," and it seems as if he had tried to walk in the footsteps of Dumas: he has brought before the public one of those social questions which inspire the eloquence and the wit of the author of "Les Idées de Madame Aubray" and so many other pieces of the same kind.

Georgette is, in my eyes, a type which ought to be banished from the stage. I can accept all sorts of passion, but the element of venality is one which I cannot accept easily. *Georgette* has been a dancer, she has sung in a music-hall, she has been notorious for the disorder of her life in Lyons and in Marseilles; she went under the name of the handsome Georgette. She has had a child by *M. de Cardillac*, one of her numerous lovers, an officer garrisoned in Marseilles. *Paula*, the child, is the heroine of the play. After her birth *Georgette*, the mother, is seized with a desire to accumulate wealth for the child, and to make a position for her. The courtesan is a good mother. This is not a great discovery in the field of morals: the 'Imitation of Christ' declares it in these admirable terms: "Something divine lingers in the most degraded being"; and it might say also: "There is something satanical left in the best of us."

Georgette, in order to make a good position for her daughter, had first to make one for herself. She continued her life of adventure, while *Paula* was young, then she got married in America, at Cincinnati, to a millionaire who left her his millions. With these millions she has bought an authentic and penniless old duke, *Lord Carlington*. We see her in the first act as *Lady Carlington*, a true duchess, devoted exclusively to her daugher *Paula*. You see at once what is going to happen. *Paula* is perfect, *Paula* is an angel, and she will inspire love in a gentleman. This gentleman will be ignorant of the past, he will not see in the *Duchess of Carlington* the circus-rider, he will allow himself to be led to the foot of the altar, till somebody comes who *knows*, and who informs his family of the true situation. And then we shall have to solve the problem, Can a gentleman marry the nice daughter of a courtesan?

Before going any further, I will say that I do not consider such a subject a moral or healthy subject. Let us suppose many things. Let us suppose that a *Georgette* can so completely transform herself that no eye can discover in her the slightest trace of her past degradation; that she can play the part of an honest woman to perfection. Let us suppose, also, that the world has become so wide, so enlarged, that her secret can be kept for years, and that she can enter the world with all the advantages of a perfect education and an irreproachable past. Let us suppose that there is no truth at all in the law of heredity, and there remains nothing in the daughter of the sin of the mother. It remains to be seen whether such a marriage as the marriage of the daughter of *Georgette* the courtesan, enriched by vice, with a gentleman, is one of those unions on which it is pleasant to look, and which seem to be made in heaven before they are made on earth. Such a marriage, if it did take place, would always appear something exceptional, fraught with danger, a perilous experiment. Why should we, then, examine such a case too closely? Why should the dramatist play with our best feelings and with our common sense? Why should he force us to go with him into a world of adventures, of shams, of lies? I am afraid it is because we want, nowadays, strong colors and brutal contrasts. We are not content with leaving virtue here and vice there; we bring them together, as a chemist brings together the acid and the base, and we do not care if the compound is an explosive.

Some secondary questions are raised in the play of "Georgette." She meets the gentleman who has known her in old times, and who exclaims at once, "*Georgette!*" She asks him to keep her secret. This gentleman, *M. Clavel de Chabreuil*, tells her, of course, that he will; but when he finds out that the *Duchess of Carlington* wishes her daughter to enter the family of his sister-in-law, he becomes embarrassed. He finds himself, like *Olivier de Jalin*, of the "Demi-Monde," between his intimate friend *Nanjac* and the *Baronne d'Ange*, and he behaves like *Olivier de Jalin*—he sacrifices the adventuress: he cannot, he will not, allow a marriage between *Paula* and young *Gontran*.

Sardou does not know how to treat such situations in the incisive manner of Alexandre Dumas. There is a scene between the young lover and *Clavel*, who has revealed the truth, before the lover's mother, which is painfully cold and sophistical. What do you think of a gentleman who says to his mother, "You will not accept *Paula* as a daughter-in-law, though one of our ancestors was the mistress of Henri IV., another was the mistress of Louis XV., and it is to this King that we owe our title"? "Ces choses-là," as the French say, "ne se disent pas"; and one would almost be inclined to say with *Bridoison*, in the "Mariage de Figaro": "Il y a des choses qu'il ne faut pas se dire à soi-même."

Of course, *Paula*, the perfect *Paula*, is totally ignorant of the past history of her mother; this loving, tender, devoted mother is in her eyes the ideal of perfection. But she cannot be kept in a fool's paradise for ever, and here we come to the master-scene of the drama—to the scene which will save the rest and console the spectator for the tedium, the triviality, the mediocrity of other parts. *Paula* begins by having a few doubts. There are things which she cannot explain to herself—the incertitude of her lover's family, the sudden coldness of its members. She becomes uneasy, she cross-examines a servant, and suddenly the light flashes on her eyes—a veil is torn. The actress who plays the part is very remarkable; she is Mademoiselle Brandès, a rising star. How intense is her despair, how noble at the same time! Her adoration is in an instant converted into horror. At this moment, *Clavel* comes—*Clavel*, who has betrayed her mother. She opens her heart to him, expresses her indignation, and then *Clavel* tells her that if she has herself such a high sentiment of duty, of honor, of all that is good, and honest, and virtuous, she owes it to whom? To this mother, who probably knew that the day would come when all the sentiments which she nursed in her child would turn against herself. The mother had prepared her own sacrifice; she had given all to her daughter, even the love which her daughter felt for her. She knew that the day would come when she would remain alone, and feel the weight of her own child's contempt. At this moment the mother enters; and *Paula*, moved by the words of *Clavel*, throws herself in her arms, and says simply, with many sobs, "My mother, my mother."

This is the great scene, the scene for which probably all the rest was written; and how does it all end? Sardou has not dared to accomplish the marriage. There is no end; the two mothers cannot agree, nor can they agree with their children; and while all is left in the air, and impossible conditions are made all round, a servant enters: "Dinner is served," and the curtain falls. You are free to imagine how time will amend the situation. Is *Paula* married by this time or is she not? You can give the solution yourself. Sardou does not distinctly give it, but he inclines to the negative. The drama of life has really no end, and the old rules of Aristotle were long ago despised and forgotten.

Correspondence.

REALISM AND IDEALISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discussion on realism and idealism in the columns of the *Nation* has been a very interesting one, and Mr. Stillman's valuable contribution to it (No. 1070), in transferring the ground from literature to the plastic arts, tempts me into the field also.

There is so much mere word-juggling in discussions of this kind that Mr. Stillman's clear definition of realism and idealism respectively as work done from nature and work done from an inner conception, is of great service. I also accept his view that music is the most purely ideal of the arts, and that no "relation to the real" can be found in it. But when his reasoning carries him to the point of stating that "the more purely ideal a work of art is, the less it resembles nature," one is somewhat staggered. If he means this to apply to the plastic arts, how does he account for the fact that Pheidias, the greatest of idealists, attained a resemblance to the actual quality of *flesh* never equalled before or since in sculpture; or that the great Venetians impress one with the actual presence of a breathing, palpitating body in a way that the most realistic of Dutchmen cannot do? He says again:

"In the better epoch of Italian ideal painting and sculpture alike we do not find any study of the special individual head. . . . Giotto, for instance, is as free from any tendency to expression of transitory emotion as was a Greek sculptor of 450 B. C. Expression as a quality of art came in with the use of portraiture, and when art had become naturalistic to a certain extent, though not yet realistic."

The first question that occurs to one in reading this is, What does Mr. Stillman consider the "better epoch of Italian ideal painting and sculpture"? That of Giotto? But if the lack of expression and of individuality of head is to be the criterion of ideality, it would seem that one should go back to Cimabue, or further. Is it not true that the progress made by Giotto consisted in a return to nature and a closer study of the men about him, thus breaking away from the purely "ideal" types of the Byzantine artists? Is it not true that the succeeding artists were constantly approaching nearer and nearer to realistic truth until the culmination of Italian art in the sixteenth century; that the work of the "goldsmith school," sculptors and painters, which made possible the great ideal work of the Cinquecento, was preëminently portraiture? It would seem that there must be a flaw in Mr. Stillman's reasoning, and it seems to me that the key to his difficulty is in the term "naturalistic," which he does not define. What do we mean by a naturalistic school of art as opposed to an idealistic school or a realistic school? This is the question for which I should like to find an answer, and, if one could find it, I think the problem would be pretty nearly solved. My contribution to the desired solution is this.

The art of painting has two distinct sides: a purely ideal side, corresponding to music, and a purely realistic or imitative side. A work of absolute idealism would have to be confined to the mere *musical* arrangement of colors and lines, without any resemblance to natural objects. Such an arrangement might be very beautiful,

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as in a Turkish rug, but surely we should not think it painting. On the contrary, a work of pure realism would be the literal imitation as closely as possible of natural objects, without any choice, arrangement, or composition. This we should recognize as painting, but it could not be called art. The instant the painter selects forms, balances colors, composes lines, he introduces a larger or smaller portion of idealism into his work, and becomes, in so far, an artist. The instant the artist introduces into his harmony of colors and lines the faintest reminiscence of any natural object whatever, he has put a certain portion of realism into his work, and is, in so far, a painter. The result is that we have in the art of painting these two elements constantly combined in constantly varying degrees; *pure* realism and *pure* idealism being almost impossible to find.

Now I believe that these two elements are equally necessary to the existence of the art, and that all progress in painting has been by a pendulum-like swing from one to the other. The art of the middle ages was very nearly pure idealism. The men of the Renaissance, in the joy of their rediscovery of nature, pushed art very far in the opposite direction. Then came the great schools of the sixteenth century, and particularly the school of Venice, and, profiting by all the knowledge of nature accumulated by the realists and adding to it themselves, they combined with it a profound idealism of their own and produced a *naturalistic* art, an art not less realistic or less ideal, but both *more* realistic and *more* ideal than that of their precursors. My definition of naturalism, then, is the reconciliation and presence in the same work of art in a high degree of the two elements, realism and idealism; and the highest degree of both qualities I believe to be characteristic of the greatest art, a perfect work being a work absolutely and thoroughly conceived by the imagination, no slightest detail being left to chance or the hazard of imitation, and yet a work in which every part so conceived should be carried out with an almost deceptive realism. Perhaps the nearest approach to such art which has ever existed is the best work of Titian.

If this argument be correct, it would follow that while it may be literally true that "the more *purely* ideal a work of art is, the less it resembles Nature," yet it is almost equally true that the more *highly* ideal a work of art is, the more it resembles Nature. KENYON COX.

NEW YORK, January 2, 1886.

A SILVER BASIS AND A BUSINESS BOOM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of your contemporaries declared last week, and has been quoted over the country, that if we fall to a silver basis it will make money more abundant and create a general boom, as in the case of the issue of a paper currency in the civil war.

Considering the proved facts regarding currency, it is difficult to understand what was in the writer's mind. Senator Beck's statement that it would be better for the country if a thief should steal 10,000,000 silver dollars and put them in circulation, than that they should be "hoarded" in the Treasury, is not more strange. That an abundance of money will not create a boom in trade, one would think sufficiently shown by the course of things the last year. It is apparent from that experience that a very large sum, even $100,000,000, could be imported into a country, and the only effect would be an advance in securities to the extent to which the money was invested. There would be no advance in general merchandise, as there would not necessarily be any increase of consumption.

But if $100,000,000 were taken from new mines of the average production, the sum represents the labor of about 200,000 men for a year, and this, when a new industry, added to the other industries, would create a demand sufficient to vivify the whole trade of the country. For such an additional industry, suddenly created, induces a general movement of men, bringing emigration, and also turning into active consumers the idle surplus of the population. As when the mines of California were discovered and thousands flocked to them, it was not the gold and silver added to the stock of the world that advanced prices of all commodities; it was the increased consumption, causing a demand so sudden and immense that it outran for a time all the hastened increase of production.

When a great war occurs, again a new, and also a very wasteful, consumption takes place. If the Government of the country issues paper money in quantity, as ours did, the mercantile prosperity that follows the demand produced by rapid and increased consumption is ascribed by many to the increased volume of currency. That does indeed, as in the case of new gold, and perhaps more quickly, increase the facilities of trading, but in itself is not the primal cause of the increased activity. It only oils the wheels.

Gold might pass out of the country in the ordinary course of trade not only without harm, but to advantage, even if to large amounts; because it would only go if too abundant for the wants of trade, and so a burden on it. But if any false position is forced upon the country, so that gold, the universal standard, is pushed unnaturally to a premium and then and therefore leaves the country, it leaves a vacuum behind it. It is not as if it were paid out for merchandise, and simply passed into new hands and combinations within the country. It goes, and whatever use it filled when here, the want of it for that use is felt, and everything in trade tightens.

Nor need any one suppose that because little gold circulates, its absence from the country altogether will not be felt. It does not circulate because our people prefer its representative in paper. But with the disappearance of gold, its representative will disappear also. Gold certificates will be collected of the Treasury, and the banks will be called upon for the stores which guarantee their issues and back their loans. The gold is the substance, the paper only the shadow, and with the substance goes the shadow. E. C.

December 30, 1885.

JEWS IN AMERICAN SOCIETY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read, in your issue of December 24, a letter headed "Jews in American Society," which contains an assertion that I know to be so utterly untrue that I feel compelled to ask for room in your columns to correct it. Your correspondent asks, "Do American ladies call on Jewish ladies and receive them at their houses? If they do I am not aware of it; on the contrary, I know that they do not, and would turn up their noses if they should meet them on terms of social equality." I see that this letter is dated in New York, and I frankly confess that I know nothing about New York society, but I do *know* that in Philadelphia, Baltimore, Richmond, Wilmington, Raleigh, and Savannah, Jewish families are received into the best society without a question, and I could mention numbers of cases where Christians of high social standing have married Jews. I have been told that in Charleston there always has been, and still is, a bitter social prejudice against the Jews, and an intimate friend of my own, a Jewess, once said to me that she would never live in Charleston on that account, for in her native place she associated with none but the best people. If your correspondent really wishes to know if American ladies visit and receive Jewish ladies, he can easily find out by making suitable inquiries in the cities I have mentioned. The names of the American ladies thus obtained will probably cause the noses of his fair friends to keep in their proper places whenever they meet a Jewish lady in future.

Yours respectfully, W. M.

BALTIMORE, December 28, 1885.

NEGRO PREJUDICE AT THE NORTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I value the *Nation* so highly that when any of its criticisms seem to me unjust, they are read with corresponding regret. A case of this kind occurred in the last issue. In your criticism of the treatment received by the Jubilee Singers from the hotel-keepers of Troy, you censure the landlords.

I feel as keenly as no doubt you do the insult to which these ladies and gentlemen of the Jubilee Singers were subjected; but the landlords are not the guilty parties. It is the people of the North, the guests of the hotels. They say very plainly to the landlord that unless negroes are refused the courtesies of the house, they will go elsewhere. With the landlord it is a question of business, not of personal feeling; and from the nature of his business, he is bound to make himself and his house agreeable to his patrons. If, therefore, parties present themselves who for any reason are decidedly objectionable to his guests, and will cause them to withdraw their patronage and ruin his business, there are sufficient reasons why he should close his doors upon the Jubilee Singers or anybody else: first, he should not be asked to injure his business, nor censured if he so conduct it that he succeeds rather than fails; second, his guests, as guests, have rights which he as a landlord is bound to respect.

In the instance under consideration, parties presented themselves to the landlords who, for reasons—extremely unjust, abominably unjust, the writer thinks—were yet decidedly objectionable to the guests of the hotels. The landlords were bound by common courtesy to close their doors—their alternative, to get out of a business that demands of them such unjust distinctions.

It is the unchristian spirit of the people of the North that compromises the landlord, and shuts out from society ladies and gentlemen whose sole misfortune is a black skin; and upon us who make the society of the North the censure should fall.

In fairness, and that a little light may be thrown upon some of the dark spots on our escutcheon, I would ask you to give this brief article a place in your columns.

Yours truly, SELAH HOWELL.

"INGLESIDE," HARVARD, MASS., January 2, 1886.

MOVABILITY OF STUDENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A movement for exchanging professors in American colleges has recently been set on foot. Much would undoubtedly be gained by such an arrangement. Not only would the students, in a far greater degree than now, be accustomed to independent judgment; but their views on any subject would be broadened, and their tolerance of other people's opinions would be increased by listening to lectures by different men of varying opinions. So far there is certainly much to be said for the interchange of professors. But this system, if brought to its full logical development, would necessitate a more or less continual

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change of residence of the professors and their families, with all the concomitant change of social relations, which could not fail to react unpleasantly on the home life, although the variety might at first be very agreeable. A constant change might impede or even prevent the original researches of many professors.

But this same object, viz., the extension of the independent judgment of the students, might be furthered in a slightly different manner. When we cannot conveniently move the professors, why should we not move the students? The average student, having no family, might almost as well spend one year in New Haven, another in Cambridge, etc., as stay all the four years of his college course in one place, if he could only be enabled in any case to count the work done toward his degree. Such an interchange of students is successfully carried on in Germany at the present day. An intelligent and discreet coöperation of the different institutions would of course be necessary. But so it would if the professor-exchanging scheme were carried into complete execution. The whole matter will be greatly facilitated, and will indeed only be possible, through the progress in the elective system, which, after having obtained complete control of Harvard, is now slowly gaining ground in most if not all similar institutions.

JOHN DITLEY FREDERIKSEN, Jr.

BOSTON, December 20, 1885.

THE TARDY APPEARANCE OF THE AMERICAN POET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Stedman's introductory paper to his 'American Poets,' discussing the causes of the slow rise of poetry in America, is stimulating and suggestive. One in thinking of it, and calling to mind the conditions of other peoples, similar in history, becomes conscious of the existence of a possible law having much to do with the subject. The problem is not wholly new. The law, if such there be, seems elusive.

Do poets in exile or in prison sing as well? We recall Ovid, Tasso, and Hugo. The induction is narrow and scarcely germane. Has a Frenchman ever produced a poem out of France? What Spanish poet has arisen in the Spanish foreign colonies and countries? The one poet of Cuba is of African mothers, two or three degrees removed. What countryman of Camoens has sung in Brazil? What have Englishmen ever done out of England, save in the United States, and here, not only after they ceased to be Englishmen, but passed the natural time and then grew to be Americans? They deal well with Canadian, East Indian themes; but as Englishmen, not as Canadians, Indians, or Australians. Goldwin Smith and Edwin Arnold are Englishmen. A man born of American parentage may write of an American subject—or could once—and yet his book not be American. He must deal in American modes, use American utterance. This no man can assume, or yet wholly put off once he has grown to it or it has grown in him; it has become part of his unconscious self. Then he can write none but American books, no matter where educated or how cultured. Henry James is a notable instance of this.

This inner essential self seems a thing of slow growth. To change the essential Englishman to the inbred American took centuries—has but just been done, if it is yet accomplished. A race must have time to become indigenous, almost aboriginal, in essence, soul, and spirit, before the shy, elusive incitements to poetry, or to any high literary utterance, come to possess and inform it. They come from a given soil, of seed wind-sown, God knows when and how. The poetic germs seem the latest given, though native races first attempt their utterance. Poetic expression, quite essential, must also be given—at least its organs of speech; then a poet of some sort is possible, and not till then.

Given this law, poetry—any high form of literature—is not a colonial product of any people. That primitive peoples first use poetic forms makes nothing against the notion I venture here to suggest. I am sure the idea was in or near Mr. Stedman's mind. It may have seemed entitled to no place. The fact remains, in modern times, no colony and but one of the younger peoples has produced poetry—a literature. R.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 3, 1886.

MITHRAISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your "Notes" of this week the account of Mithraism, condensed from Orazio Marucchi, is somewhat incorrect. It was not "a form of Mazdeism founded by Zoroaster with the Zendavesta for its sacred book." Zoroaster's Mazdeism was pure Dualism. The worship of Mithra, or the Sun, like that of Anahita, or Water, was only introduced towards the end of the Achæmenian dynasty, when Mazdeism had been corrupted with Medic and Magian elements and Greek polytheism. The Zendavesta is what remains of the sacred books of the Mazdeans, but even the fragments which have reached us are of widely separated dates. The earlier Gathas, or hymns, attributed to Zoroaster, contain no allusions to Mithra or other subordinate gods, while in the later Yashts these are elevated almost to an equality with Ahura, or Hormazd. I should like to know what authority can be found for the conception that Mithra was a mediator between Hormazd and Ahriman, as I have never met with it.

Not less misleading is the assertion that "Mithraism became the great rival of Christianity." The rival of Christianity was not the Mithraic worship, but Manichæism—a very different faith, compounded by Manes of Buddhistic, Mazdean, and Christian elements. In it the Zoroastrian Dualism was profoundly modified and adapted to Jehovah and Satan, and nature-worship, such as Mithraism, became impossible, as the visible universe was the work of the Evil Principle. The savage death inflicted on Manes by Varahran I. and the extermination of his followers show the light in which the new faith was regarded by the Mazdeans. The most that can be said is, that the prevalence of the Mithraic worship in the Roman Empire facilitated the introduction of Manichæism.

It was perhaps natural that the early Christian writers, like Tertullian and Justin Martyr, should imagine that some of the Mithraic rites were borrowed from Christianity, but such influence as was exercised was rather in the opposite direction. What these writers regarded as an imitation of the Lord's Supper was the ancient Izeshne sacrifice, performed with the Draona or sacred cake, and the Homa-juice derived from the Vedic Soma sacrifice. This was followed by Manes; and the gradual modification of the Christian Eucharist from a substantial meal to the symbolical wafer and wine-and-water may reasonably be attributed to Manichæan example.

Very respectfully, H. C. L.

PHILADELPHIA, January 2, 1886.

Notes.

FROUDE'S new book of world travel, 'Oceana,' will be issued in this country by Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Macmillan & Co. make the tempting announcement of a new edition of the Writings of John Morley in eight monthly volumes, uniform with the Eversley edition of Kingsley. 'Voltaire' will lead the series.

'Letters to a Daughter,' by Mrs. Helen E. Starrett, is in the press of Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Ginn & Co. will have ready in March 'The Philosophy of Wealth: Economic Principles Newly Formulated,' by John B. Clark, Professor in Smith College.

An English edition of Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton's 'Poor Boys who Became Famous' will be brought out by Hodder & Stoughton.

Among the firstlings of the opening year the *New Princeton Review* may well receive priority of mention. The January number justifies the announcement of the prospectus that this revived periodical "will be neither a magazine nor a quarterly." Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's opening paper, on "Society in the New South," might have appeared in any of the popular magazines, where the two final sections of the "Criticisms, Notes, and Reviews" would be out of place, while quite adapted to the old ideal of a learned quarterly. Dr. McCosh discusses "What an American Philosophy Should Be"; Dr. C. H. Parkhurst sets forth "The Christian Conception of Property"; Professor Young enumerates in a very lucid manner the "Lunar Problems Now Under Debate"; Professor McMaster describes "A Free Press in the Middle Colonies," being a tribute to William Bradford, the printer. Mr. Cable's vein is manifest in the unsigned short story of the number, "Monsieur Motte." "The Political Situation," likewise of unacknowledged authorship, is a rambling and inconclusive discourse, in which the urgency of putting down the Mormons and having more to do (in a national, self-asserting way) with "abroad" seems to lie most heavily on the writer's mind. We cannot praise the typographical beauty of the *Review*.

We have received the first number of the *Church Magazine*, published monthly by L. R. Hamersley & Co., Philadelphia. Two articles are significant: "Shall We Have a Colored Clergy?" by the Rev. Calbraith B. Perry; and "Civil-Service Reform," by C. Stuart Patterson.

With the present month begins the Johns Hopkins *Modern Language Notes*, a monthly (for eight months of the year), edited by A. Marshall Elliott and his associates, James W. Bright, Julius Goebel, and Henry Alfred Todd. English, French, and German alone occupy the attention of the writers for Number 1, which gives promise of a very useful medium for brief interchange of ideas, reviews, etc.

Several literary masks have been laid aside and several literary incognitos pierced recently. 'At the Red Glove' is now published in London in the usual absurd three-volume form, without Mr. Reinhart's illustrations, and with the name of the author—Mrs. Macquoid. "Professor Hoffmann," the author of that admirable text-book 'Modern Magic,' has written a story for boys called 'Conjurer Dick; or, the Adventures of a Young Wizard,' on the title-page of which he has put also his real name, Angelo J. Lewis. "Sidney Luska," who wrote 'As it was Written,' is a young New Yorker, Mr. Henry Harland; and the anonymous author of a clever satire, 'That Very Mab,' is a young English poetess, Miss May Kendall.

It is common for American publishers to put English poems into the hands of American artists to illustrate as best they may; but a reversal of this international borrowing is as yet infrequent. Among the English holiday announcements, however, was one of 'Maud Muller,' illustrated with twenty-one full-page colored designs by Mr. George F. Carline.

Mr. John Coleman, an English actor, who re-

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cently put forth his 'Recollections of Charles Reade,' is about to publish the 'Memoirs of Samuel Phelps: His Early Struggles and Romantic Adventures (related by himself), with Some Record of His Artistic Life and Work' (London: Remington: New York: Scribner & Welford).

Our esteemed monthly contemporary, *Reform*, whose place of publication is Norden, Germany, and whose aim is to promote a simpler German orthography, has its "Practical Department" and its "Theoretic Department." The first aims to be *unterhaltendes und belerendes*, or, as we should say, entertaining and instructive; and in this laudable endeavor it gives an example of "Quaker sly" (*schlauheit eines kwäkers*) in its issue for December 15, 1885. The opening sentence reads thus: "In der gegend fon Philadelphia, der buchhändlerstat Amerikas, trib schon seit langer zeit ein raüber sein wesen." In the recent debate over the Quaker City in these columns we believe no one went so far in its defence as to call it "the booksellers' city of America," as *Reform* does; but some were inclined to allow, with *Reform* and with the *Nation*, that "for a long time a robber had been carrying on his operations" in that vicinity. *Reform* says: "Jim-Joi war sein name"; but our own impression is that he was called Protection.

Numismatics is a dry study, although the filling up of a series of coins or the acquisition of some single rare one is of passionate interest to the collector. But the science attains a certain elevation when it gives occasion to such generalizations as in M. P. C. Roberts's memoir on the making of coins in Gaul. He traces the course of Gallic mintage, as it spread from the south coast, having its origin in the imitation of the bronze coins of Sicily and the silver coins of a Greco-Iberian colony. Everything shows that there were many places where coins were struck, a separate coinage apparently for every little tribe, and a diversity of systems of weights and measures that called loudly for a metric reform. With the Roman conquest came uniformity and centralization. Three mints only were left. But under Frankish rule the old Gallic practice returned. Not cities only, but even lesser places struck their own coins, on which the name of the magistrate and the coiner appear, and sometimes of the coiner alone. With the strengthening of the monarchy at Paris of course the right of free coinage was again withdrawn. Here is a systole and diastole, an alternate disintegration and integration, that might please Herbert Spencer, and bring numismatics into the rank of the philosophical sciences.

Switzerland has lately struggled with the liquor question. On the one hand it was seen that the passion for alcoholic drinks was gaining ground. The fortunes made by distillers, the increasing numbers of tavern keepers, the records of crime, all showed this clearly. On the other hand, the direct taxes, by which much of the cantonal revenue is raised, have reached their limits, and are always unpopular, and the Cantons cannot raise indirect taxes without the consent of the Federation. It was thought, therefore, to kill two birds with one stone, at once replenishing the treasury and reforming the morals of the people. The project was naturally warmly opposed. The distillers, seeing their gains menaced by the proposed tax on alcoholic drinks, sent their clerks through the country to distribute pamphlets and money, and on election day furnished free liquor to all who would promise them a vote. The Socialists did not disdain to seek popularity by raising the cry that the law which would leave untouched the rich man's wine would deprive the poor man of his glass of schnapps, his sole consolation in his troubles, and other such stuff. But they did not succeed. On the 25th of October the law was adopted by a vote of 229,619 against 157,035, and by a majority of 15 Cantons to 7. It remains to be seen what the effect will be. American experience shows that fighting rum is by no means the simple affair that it appears to the inexperienced reformer.

In opening the general meeting of the Rumanian Academy in 1884 King Carol proposed the publication of an 'Etymologicum Magnum Romaniæ,' to contain every word found in old documents, traces of which might soon be lost, and, as a beginning, he placed at the disposition of the Academy the sum of 6,000 francs. Pursuant to this proposition, the Academy drew up a careful scheme of work, and intrusted the editorship of the work to one of its members, Mr. B. Petriceicu-Hasdeu, member also of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg, Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Bucarest, Director-General of the State Archives, a man of great learning and accomplishments, and well known to all interested in Rumania. It is expected that the work will consist of ten volumes of four parts each. The first part, A–Acàt (acacia), has lately appeared, which contains also the general plan of the work. In the introduction the editor briefly discusses three questions: What is etymology? How can languages be mixed? In what does the physiognomy of a language consist? He leans very greatly toward the predominance of the Latin element in Rumanian, a fact specially worthy of attention, because he has a profound knowledge of the chief Slavic languages. Whatever may be our opinions as to Mr. Hasdeu's theories, there can be no question of his knowledge and ability, and this dictionary, which has long been a desideratum, will be gladly received by all who are interested in the Romance languages.

Prof. Dr. Emil Schürer, of the University of Giessen, has just issued one-half of a second edition of his excellent 'Lehrbuch der Neutestamentlichen Zeitgeschichte,' first published in 1874. It appears under a new and, considering that the "Zeitgeschichte" does not embrace the history of Syria, Egypt, or any other country adjoining the cradle of Christianity, a more appropriate title: 'Geschichte des Jüdischen Volkes im Zeitalter Jesu Christi' (Leipzig: "1886"). Of the new edition, which is almost a new work, the second part is published first, the author having begun his rewriting where he expected most of it to be needed, with the intention of connecting both parts, as in the original edition, in one volume, which eventually proved impossible. The volume issued is, in fact, larger by two hundred pages (of the same size) than the whole of the 'Lehrbuch.' The new publication is incomparably more valuable to scholars, being prodigiously rich in quotations and references, and often expatiating on topics which were originally barely alluded to; but it is less handy for common or school use, and also less readable, owing to the intrusion of much dry detail into the text. A mere glance over it reveals the vast extent of the antiquarian labor that has been performed in this field, by Jewish and Christian scholars, within the last decade, as well as of the wonderful scrupulousness with which Dr. Schürer has followed it all up. The chapters on Pharisees and Sadducees, Essenes, and similar subjects show how ready he was to modify his most elaborate pages in conformity to altered critical views.

"M.," who inquired through these columns about art instruction for women in Munich, is advised to correspond with Frau Prof. F. von Lietzen-Mayer, Schelling Strasse 8, I, Munich.

The address is desired of "M. E. W.," writer of a communication in the *Nation* of November 26, 1885, page 445.

—The January *Century* has a scientific novelty in the shape of some curious and lifelike illustrations of extinct "feathered forms," of which a large proportion are purely imaginary restorations from fossil remains, and, by exhibiting to the eye what the eye never saw, make evolution graphic in a peculiarly impressive way. The number is, however, rather more noticeable for the brief articles which are becoming a pronounced feature of this magazine. Doctor Waldstein, in a very few pages, insists on the necessity of education for the artist as well as the public, and characterizes in very plain words the artist class as one of imperfect intellectual culture and unfortunately clannish instincts; and, in fact, there is no department of work in which a native dexterity, a mere bent and talent, is so unhesitatingly looked on as a guarantee of success by itself alone. There is a happy audacity in his speaking of the opinion that "we are at heart a materialistic people" as "long ago exploded." His didactic views are sustained by another short article containing notes of five of Carolus Duran's talks to his pupils, in which the necessity of thinking out a picture, as well as of reproducing forms, is the main point dwelt upon. The most vigorous article—one which enchains attention—is Mr. Linton's recollections and brief portraits of four revolutionary Republicans whom he knew in his Chartist days. His memory of them is an emotion that really burns with the true fire of the spirit, and hence sets before us the life and sacrifice of Lamennais, Mazzini, Worcell, and Herzen with extraordinary power.

—General Pope gives the history of the second battle of Bull Run as the leading war paper. It was impossible for the principal actor in a campaign which has been the subject of fierce controversy, to tell its story without feeling, and it is evident that time has not greatly softened his judgment of the conduct of Gen. Fitz-John Porter on that field. General Pope's view of it, whether the reader has taken one side or the other, is a necessary part of the debate. It is given with directness and vigor. A part of it which all will welcome is the new light thrown upon the general purpose of Mr. Lincoln at the beginning of the campaign, the circumstances of General Halleck's call to the chief command of the national armies, and the extent to which General Pope himself was acting under explicit orders in accepting the risks of a general engagement with Lee. The maps are numerous, and tend greatly to give order and purpose to the movements from August 26th to the 30th. The other illustrations contain two or three of the invaluable views from photographs of the country, and good portraits of Halleck, Sigel, Schenck, Grover, Kearny, and Stevens. Mr. Goss's "Recollections of a Private" are incidents of the same field, pleasantly told, and mingled with some broader criticisms of the campaign.

—The January-number of *Lippincott's* comes to us with the new features that have been already announced—a simple and attractive cover, admirable type, with the line running across the page, and a strengthened list of contributors. This change brings the magazine boldly out of the border-land of provincialism which has been its habitat, into the group of the national magazines. Both editor and publisher are to be congratulated on the advance, and for the taste and judgment displayed in its manner. Any author who cares for the way in which his work is given to the public will be pleased to have it appear in this dress, and he may be sure of good company for his name in the table of contents. The invigoration of the staff, it is to be observed, is mainly from foreign blood, though there is promise given of some home infusion in the future. The improvement in the quality of the serial fiction is especially noticeable, but criticism of it belongs elsewhere in our columns. Grant Al-

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len and Bourke Marston are the only occasional English writers of note in this issue, both of their contributions being distinctly Anglican; and Louise Chandler Moulton is the sole representative of the better American magazinists. By the way, we remark that it is unintelligible that such an inanity as "L. A. W.'s" lines should find space for itself in a number otherwise so well edited. The most excellent piece, to our thinking, is a bundle of excerpts from a half-dozen old *Westminster* reviews of George Eliot's, of which the critical value is great. Tennyson, Kingsley, Browning, Dickens, Ruskin, and Arnold are dealt with; and after the thirty years of examination they have subsequently undergone, the penetrating and catholic character of George Eliot's remarks on them, written in the way of mere quarterly review, comes out with great force, and to the honor of the splendid reputation she has achieved since penning them. In the case of Tennyson only her words proved deficient; in the others they forecast future judgment.

—The publications of the Boston Public Library are nearly always of the greatest use in those libraries which lack the means, or the energy, or the interest in bibliographical progress, to follow its example. Owing to the generous policy of the authorities, also, the special catalogues are sold at cost price, so that, in the case of the just published new edition (the seventh) of the Fiction Catalogue, any one who writes for it gets a large octavo of 238 pages for 25 cents, postpaid. Considering the large number of books enumerated, and the great variety of taste to be provided for, the most noticeable thing about the catalogue is the omissions. These are plainly divisible into two classes, the first consisting of books of a supposed immoral tendency, such as those of Zola, "Ouida," and Rhoda Broughton; and the second embracing books of all degrees of merit, but having this in common, that they are reprinted in this country only in the form of the cheap "libraries." No other explanation than their typographic form occurs to us for the exclusion of such works as the recent novels of W. E. Norris, E. D. Gerard, R. Buchanan, R. C. Francillon, P. P. Jephson, W. Besant, etc. As to the moral test, the taste of the censor seems to have been somewhat capricious, as, for instance, Balzac's 'Eugénie Grandet' is excluded, while 'César Birotteau' is admitted; and if it is the young who are to be protected, a nice point is raised by the retention of 'Tom Jones' and the tabuing of Rhoda Broughton.

—As regards the technically bibliographical features, we find in the present edition a considerable advance on all former works of the kind, especially in giving the real authorship to anonymous and pseudonymous books, though even easily accessible sources of information have sometimes been neglected. Thus no notice is taken of the fact, made public a year and a half ago in the *Nation* and elsewhere, that 'The Picture in my Uncle's Dining-Room,' 'The Old M'sieu's Secret,' and 'Where Shall He Find Her?' are all translations of Mme. Reybaud's 'Mlle. de Malepeire.' Elsewhere we find two translations of one of Erckmann-Chatrian's stories catalogued as distinct works. As to pseudonyms, the practice is most inconsistent. There can be no better test of a cataloguer's habit of mind than the way he treats "George Eliot" and "George Sand." Both these ladies were and are known by their pseudonyms only, not merely on their title-pages, but in every aspect of life, except, of course, in their family relations. The average reader knows not that they had another name, while, even with the literary class, it requires an effort of memory to recall what the names were. And not only is this true, but it is recognized as true by those whose opinion and example should determine the practice of cataloguers, viz., their literary executors, as is shown in the publication of George Sand's (not Mme. Dudevant's) correspondence, and in her husband's life of George Eliot (not Mary Ann Cross). We are pleased to see that the Boston cataloguer takes this view as regards George Eliot, though in the other case he follows the doctrinaire theory of always placing an author's books under the real, even if practically unknown, name, at whatever cost of convenience. As regards pseudonyms in general, we observe but few errors or omissions. "E. Oswald" (Bernhardine Schulze), "Marie Oliver" (Carrie L. Brown), "Moritz v. Reichenbach" (Valeska Bethusy-Huc), and "Margaret Vandegrift" are passed as real names, while "Rita," though marked "pseud.," has not, bracketed with it, the author's name (Eliza [Gollan] von Booth). In the case of Miss De la Ramée (Ouida) the name is spelled, in disagreement with other cataloguers and compilers, Rame, and, what is more remarkable, it is alphabetized under R. According to all rules, if the owner of the name is English, it should be placed under D (as De Quincey, De Vere, etc.); if French, under L.

—The 10th of December was a peculiar day at the French Academy. Letters gave precedence to Science in a body whose origin was purely literary, and whose course of action has always been removed from scientific researches. M. J. Bertrand, a mathematician, the successor of J. B. Dumas, a chemist, took his seat for the first time and was welcomed by Louis Pasteur. It is a gratification to see scholars whose lives have been devoted to science thus honored by the highest literary body of France, and showing themselves worthy of that honor by a purity, precision, force, and even artistic grace of language that leaves nothing to be desired. The reception speech of M. Bertrand was grave and temperate in its tone. Although he touched upon the chief merits of his predecessor, he did not make a panegyric of such warmth as might have been expected; but even in this the orator was true to his severity of manner, to his scientific precision. The answer of M. Pasteur was a happy contrast to the speech of the recipiendary. After felicitously and warmly congratulating the new member, and summarily stating his claims to the honor conferred upon him, he passed on to dwell upon the labors of J. B. Dumas. He spoke of him more in the tone of a loving disciple, an impassioned admirer, than in that of the director of the Academy. This personal note and the emotion of the speaker added not a little charm to the highly-finished speech of a man on whom the eyes of the world are now fixed.

—In the days of his prosperity, Mr. Henry Villard, among numerous charitable, philanthropic, and educational foundations in his fatherland, provided the means for publishing collectively the earliest historical documents relating to his native city of Speyer, in Rhenish Bavaria. The work, undertaken at the instance of the Pfalz Historical Society, was intrusted to a relative of Mr. Villard's, Mr. Alfred Hilgard, and has been executed with the utmost scrupulousness and intelligence, producing a fine quarto volume, 'Urkunden zur Geschichte der Stadt Speyer' (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner). Neither the collections of Remling (1852-53) nor of Lehmann (1711) rendered the present one superfluous, in which both public and private sources have been drawn upon, with the general aim to elucidate the external relations of the city to other Rhenish cities, to neighboring princes and knights, and to the course of German history, as well as the municipal contests, lay and spiritual. Happily, while the French in 1689 left hardly one stone upon another, the city archives appear to have been remarkably preserved, and but few losses have occurred in the meantime. The first document goes back to A. D. 653, and the last of the 536 here brought together bears date of A. D. 1349, in which year the municipal government was reorganized on a pure guild basis. The text is either Latin or German, and the drift of it presents no unusual difficulties, while the contents afford a good deal of instruction and sometimes of amusement concerning things mediæval. Pacts between emperor, king, pope, bishop, and the city council, and leagues between Speyer and Mainz and Worms, for example, abound. So do ecclesiastical squabbles and contests over wood, marsh, and meadow; differences between bakers and millers, truces between clothmakers and weavers, and pledges of mutual support by the guilds; arbitrations; renunciations; privileges accorded to the cathedral or to the municipality; gifts to pious houses and to hospitals. Now and again, too, ferriage and tolls of the Rhine are in question.

—The Jews figure prominently in these records. Bishop Rüdiger gives notice in 1084: "Collectos igitur locavi extra communionem et habitacionem ceterorum civium, et ne a pecoris turbe insolencia facile turbarentur, muro eos circumdedi"; but this shepherdly care cost the flock annually "tres libras et dimidiam Spirensis monete ad communem usum fratrum." Typical is the pledge by King Adolf, in 1298, of all his revenues from the Jews of Speyer to insure his indemnifying the city for damages done by his troops in passing through on his Alsatian expedition: "Donamus vobis et tradimus . . . in totum iudeos nostros Spirenses . . . ita ut vos ipsos iudeos vice nostra utamini et fruamini totaliter." And in one instance a King "checks against" them so far as they were "not otherwise appropriated." In 1340 the Jews borrow of the municipality 1,100 pounds with interest at 100. The year before, on December 10, Bishop Gerhard took them under his protection for ten years on condition of an annual payment of 500 pounds farthings; and the next day the secular authorities offered a like protection for 300 pounds. In 1349, King Carl IV. relinquished to the city all his rights of property in the Jewish community. Interesting are the penal ordinances for the citizens at large. In 1314, for instance, as to opprobious language: "Wer ein mensche wider siner cristenheit schiltet und in nennet eins pherdes sun eder eins hundes eder eins andern vihes, der git fumf schillinge spirscher deme burgermesteren," etc. There was no ordinance, as now in some German cities, against piano-playing, but there being too much music in the streets at night—narrow streets, in which every note told—it was necessary to denounce the charivari of the strolling nocturnal bands: "das grosze unruge . . . vom disen nahtgengern, die nahtes gent mit phiffen, drumben, orgeln unde seiten spil," not to speak of *quinternen*, *rotden*, *vidlen*, and other ear-splitting instruments. The Rat, or city magistrates, regulated the wages of stonecutters, masons, roofers, carpenters, etc., as also the making of cloth—"Dicimus pannos debere fieri tali modo: . . . Item, omnes panni generaliter, qui hic parantur, habere debent in latitudine II ulnas." The warp must be hand-woven, etc. The appendices throw much light on these matters. There is an index of names, but no table of contents. Several photographic facsimiles adorn the volume.

STEPHEN'S FAWCETT.

Life of Henry Fawcett. By Leslie Stephen. London: Smith, Elder & Co. 1885.

"FAWCETT," writes Mr. Stephen, "had been for thirty years one of my most intimate and valued

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friends. It would be strange if during that period I had not learnt to understand one of the simplest and most transparent of men."

In this sentence Mr. Stephen hits off, with exquisite skill, the most striking trait of Fawcett's character, and proves, if proof were needed, that he thoroughly understood the friend to whose fame he has raised the most touching, the most truthful, and, therefore, the most honorable of monuments. But a critic may doubt whether the clearly marked lines of Fawcett's genius may not (paradoxical as the assertion may sound) be a real hindrance to his being if not understood yet fully appreciated by the majority of Englishmen. There exists at the present day an unwholesome craving for biographical revelations, and in Fawcett there was nothing to reveal, just as there was nothing to hide. The present age feels a morbid delight in the sympathetic study of sickly, abnormal, tortuous, and inconsistent natures. In Fawcett everything was wholesome, regular, strong, and self consistent. He was all made of a piece. He was assuredly not without his faults and limitations, but his deficiencies were exactly the *wants which one would expect to find connected* with his virtues. Whoever cares for nothing but what is strange and *bizarre* had better not occupy himself with the 'Life of Henry Fawcett': he will find nothing there to his taste. And even those readers of whom there will always, one may trust, be tens of thousands, on both sides of the Atlantic, who can value the greatness of a large and transparent nature, must yet be on their guard lest the simplicity should conceal the rarity of Fawcett's character.

He belonged in truth—and this is the point of view from which he may most fairly be criticised—rather to a past than to the present generation. He and his friends admittedly represented in opinion the traditions of utilitarian Radicalism. But Fawcett was bound by something much closer than mere similarity of dogma to the school of Mill and of Bentham. He would, both from his virtues and from his deficiencies, have been *perfectly at home with Bentham, with Mill*, with Buller, with John Austin, or with Macaulay. We can scarcely feel as if he was really of the same make as the men with whom he was connected in actual life. The generation who have admired Carlyle, Tennyson, Maurice, Kingsley, and Ruskin, Newman, and Gladstone, is not the world in which, if one judged merely by natural affinity, one would place Fawcett. Mr. Stephen tells us that Fawcett could not understand why political economy should, even in derision, be called the "dismal" science. He did not feel the force of a nickname which has done more to discredit the scientific investigation into the laws of wealth than all the fallacies propagated by all the paradox mongers who for the last fifty years have flourished, and do still flourish, to the increase of the intellectual confusion of an already confused enough world. Fawcett would probably not even have understood how any sarcasm *could have more weight than an argument*. He did not share the feeling, perfectly intelligible at any rate to men such as Bagehot or Professor Seeley, or his own biographer, Mr. Leslie Stephen. He belonged, in short, to a type of character as common among the great men of fifty or sixty years back as it is rare in the present generation. The best way to understand him is to examine what were the traits which, while they marked him off from his contemporaries, also made him exert so much influence among men who felt, without knowing it, the lack of the gifts which he possessed.

The two features which pervaded his whole nature were simplicity and strength—a quality which is far more closely connected than most persons believe with clearness of mind and consequent singleness of purpose.

In every part of Fawcett's conduct the simplicity becomes apparent. Clear, certain, ascertained truths, whether of mathematics, logic, or of political economy (which, like law, is only a form of applied logic), were the things which really commanded his intellectual interest. Even in his own sphere as a political economist, he did not, we gather from Mr. Stephen as from our own slight acquaintance with Fawcett's works, shine by the novelty or the subtlety of his thoughts. He was absolutely wanting in the flexibility and adaptiveness of Bagehot. He had little of that desire for the reconciliation of opposite views which gives a singular interest and occasionally imparts a curious weakness to the speculations of Mill. But to put against these merits, Fawcett's clear strong mind held the doctrines which he had mastered with a tenacity and a faith utterly foreign to a generation most of whom, like Mr. Brooke in 'Middlemarch,' think every dogma true "up to a certain point," or, in other words, indolently accept doctrines which they only half believe because they have not energy to carry any doctrine whatever out to its full consequences. With Fawcett, on the other hand, to believe a view to be true was the same thing as to be willing to act upon its truth. We have no doubt that he would have sympathized with the somewhat grotesque indignation displayed by James Mill when John, then certainly not more than nine years old, wrote an essay containing the statement that something was "true in theory, but not true in practice." Fawcett, indeed, had too much genial kindliness to punish a child for a logical error, but the idea that a thing could be at once true and not true, a doctrine to hold, but not a doctrine to live by, was utterly repugnant to his whole tone of mind.

With the great thinkers of the eighteenth century Fawcett firmly believed in Reason, and was prepared to make Reason, as far as she would carry him, the guide of his life. This earnest desire to follow out in practice the truths which his mind grasped, is visible both in his dealings with others and in his conduct of his own life, and it is this simple acting upon simple convictions which so greatly distinguishes him from the crowd who have neither definite beliefs nor fixed courses of action. The truth, for example, that self-help and thrift are virtues, would probably be admitted by any man who can understand the meaning of words. But the number of persons who, either in giving charity or in the views they take of policy and legislation, are really guided by a desire to promote independence or economy, is infinitesimally small. With Fawcett, on the other hand, the belief that thrift and independence were essential elements, both of individual and of national prosperity, was a principle which regulated all his views, both of benevolence and of policy. It is curious to see, as one follows Fawcett's political career, what simplicity and vigor the genuine adherence to very elementary economical or moral axioms could give to the conduct of a member of Parliament. At every turn he tests measures proposed for his acceptance by the criterion of their effect in promoting or in undermining independence. No doubt this consideration is not the sole matter to which politicians must give attention, and Fawcett's adherence to too exclusive a test no doubt sometimes led him wrong: but the tenacity with which he held to a truth that he had realized was sufficient of itself to raise him from a politician to a statesman. The rule, moreover, which he applied to others he applied to himself. To rely upon himself, not to yield to the hardest strokes of fate, to practise self-help on the grandest scale under the most difficult of all circumstances, was the one supreme effort, as it was also the final triumph, of his life.

A reader, however, may say that at this point our criticism passes from the simplicity to the strength of Fawcett's character. The remark is true as far as it goes, but the matter well worth observation is that the directness of Fawcett's intellect stands in intimate connection with the force of his will. No one, of course, could have conquered in the contest with an obstacle which, like blindness, seemed at first sight an absolute bar to Fawcett's intended career, who had not been endowed with extraordinary physical nerve and courage. You could hardly see him walk without knowing at once that he was one of the boldest of men. But lack of physical bravery is after all not the main cause of hesitation: *Hamlet* did not want pluck or nerve. The true reason why the men of the nineteenth century seem deficient in resolution is that they are paralyzed by the worship of inconsistent ideals. Many men can act strenuously enough to obtain what they ardently desire. Feebleness in action generally means want of strong desire for a clearly perceived end. Half of Fawcett's superiority lay in the clearness and in the simplicity both of his intellect and of his desires. His power, moreover, with others as probably over himself, was in more ways than one increased by his blindness. We are no believers in the optimism which sees a disguised blessing hidden under every palpable misfortune. To the sufferer, at least, the disguise is in general thick enough to render the blessing absolutely invisible. But a calamity which cannot be called a blessing may be an opportunity. The blow which for a moment struck down Fawcett, and would most assuredly thoroughly have crushed any weaker man, enabled him to show both to others, and—a thing of even more consequence—to himself, the heroism which was in him. He fell back, almost from the moment at which he was struck blind, on his own belief in self-help; and the difficulties of his contest with fortune either displayed or created a concentration of power and depth of character which may have been a surprise even to his own heart. It is easy at any rate to believe that had he retained his eyesight, he would have risen at the bar and have ended life as nothing much above an energetic Q. C. in receipt of an income of five or six thousand a year, and, had his true public spirit lifted him to something higher than mere forensic success, he might probably have died without the knowledge that he had within him something of heroic stuff.

Mr. Cotter Morison has, if our memory does not deceive us, remarked of Macaulay that the ease and prosperity of his life deprived him of the opportunity of displaying or practising on any grand scale that high care for the public welfare, and that sturdy independence, of which one can see traces in his character and in the acts of his early political life. This opportunity for greatness was never wanting to Fawcett. Even had he only succeeded in occupying the position of a professor, he would have done more than could have been accomplished in his position by one man out of a thousand. To have held firmly to the resolution that he would take part in politics, and to have become one of the leading statesmen of the day, was not only to achieve a feat which could hardly have been performed by one man in a million, but—a thing of much greater moment—was to brighten the possibilities of existence for every man afflicted with blindness. Nor is it unnatural to believe that the concentration of thought and action forced upon Fawcett gave additional depth to his convictions, while his misfortune increased his sympathy with the sufferings of others. Mr. Stephen dwells upon the chivalrous nature of his friend, and it is clear enough that as Fawcett lived on, the chivalry and the gallantry of his nature increased. As a politician

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he displayed some considerable defects. He does not appear to have been strong either in foresight or insight. Such prevision as he exhibited consisted not so much in seeing into the facts before him (he never, for instance, completely understood the educational difficulty presented by the collision of theological beliefs), but in his strict faith that economical and moral truths would sooner or later produce their effects, whether men liked these effects or not. But if he was not endowed with any prophetic spirit, he raised politics far above their ordinary level, both by his intense interest in the claims to consideration of classes who, like the inhabitants of India, find it difficult to make their voices heard in the English Parliament, and by his combined belief both in democratic progress and in the necessity that the democracy should hear the truth. He was, in short, one of those men who, to use Mr. Stephen's words, "fear to speak an insincere word, and fear nothing else." The simple clearness of his intellect and the direct energy of his conduct almost blend together. Truthfulness and strength become perfect sincerity displayed in the highest form of public spirit.

The very words "public spirit" lead us on to a peculiarity in Fawcett in which he resembled a past generation, and was unlike the men of his own time. It is, we take it, pretty clear that neither religion, nor certainly theology, had much hold on Fawcett's heart or intellect. It is of course impossible for any one to speak with certainty of the hidden feelings and aspirations of any man, and least of all of one who, transparent as he was, seems to have practis considerable reticence in matters of feeling. Still, it is probably not rash to say that Fawcett's interests were a good deal more secular than religious. Some critics of his life seem to have found a difficulty in understanding how a person devoid of all care for theological dogma could yet have risen in many ways so much above the moral level of ordinary men. The end of an article is certainly not the place in which to discuss the problems presented by the contrast between the secular and the religious ideal. One historical fact, however, may in this connection be fairly noticed. The philanthropists or reformers of the eighteenth century, such as Voltaire, Condorcet, Turgot, or Bentham, were either sceptical or indifferent on all matters of theological dogma. But no error is more misleading than the idea that such men were without enthusiasm. The desire for reforms which should benefit mankind, the passion for enlightenment, zeal for the propagation of utilitarian morality—these and other forms of public spirit were their religion. With Fawcett, as with them, public spirit was a true form of faith.

Incidents and Anecdotes of the Civil War. By Admiral Porter. D. Appleton & Co. 1885.

Admiral Porter is not only a distinguished naval commander, but he is also well known as a writer of romances. In this book he has combined the two qualities. The book reads quite like a romance, and yet it is confined solely to the naval exploits of himself and others during the war. It repeatedly disclaims the idea of being in any sense a history, though the Admiral tells us more than once that he has written a history "of all the events that came under my cognizance during the conflict, which may or not be published at some future time." This book is just what its title denotes, a series of anecdotes of the war, a string of old sailors' "yarns," most capitally spun, and sufficiently related to great events and great people to give them a never failing interest. Some of the language which represents the remarks of Grant and Sherman and others is not to be considered in the light of a verbatim report, nor are the anecdotes themselves to be judged by the standard of accuracy to which they would be subjected if they were put forth as deliberate historical statements. "These reminiscences are simply for amusement"; as such they must be judged, and there can be little doubt of their being considered a success, or of their value as throwing a side light—and sometimes a strong one—on nearly all the important naval events of the war. The relief of Pensacola, the capture of New Orleans, the operations near Vicksburg, the Red River Expedition, the capture of Fort Fisher, and the final operations on the James River—in all of these Admiral Porter was a chief actor, and he has something new and entertaining to say about all of them.

His opinions about men and events are very freely expressed, though he evidently endeavors to avoid anything that might appear spiteful or malicious. When he comes to speak of Butler and Banks, however, this requires a great effort. He cannot refrain from ridiculing at great length Butler's famous plan of knocking down Fort Fisher by exploding a powder ship in the inlet abreast of it. Some rebels who deserted on the night of the explosion were brought before the Admiral, and he questioned them as to the effect. "It was dreadful," said one of them; "it woke up everybody in the fort." For Banks and his Red River expedition he has hardly less contempt, and he more than intimates that the whole expedition had no military object, but was simply a gigantic cotton speculation. Having written his own "strictly true and complete account of the Banks campaign" (which, however, he has no intention of publishing at present), he reminds Banks that he has never yet made his report, and playfully suggests that "perhaps the General, in his declining years, may think it worth his while to use the talents he is known to possess in an eminent degree, to write a history of that campaign."

Of Lincoln and Grant, and Farragut and Sherman, the Admiral cannot say too much. His respect for them is profound, and his admiration hearty and genuine. He considers Grant's campaign in rear of Vicksburg "the most remarkable and most successful military operation of the war"; and as no accounts of it have ever been written which he considers at all satisfactory, he dashes off eleven pages of poetry in order to describe it properly. The passage of the forts below New Orleans is equally great in his mind as a naval effort, and his praises of Farragut are lavish; but he claims for himself the honor of first suggesting the expedition to the authorities in Washington, and of proposing Farragut's name to the President as the best man to command it. In order to refute the statements of the late Secretary Welles concerning this matter, the Admiral narrates in great detail the circumstances under which his proposals were made.

Of Sherman he speaks in the tone of intimate comradeship, as he well has the right to do, for no two men ever worked more earnestly and heartily in accord for a great cause than these two. They are now the only survivors of the great chiefs of the war time. "Old Tecumseh and myself still hold on, two tough old knots, with a good deal of the steel in us yet, and quite enough vitality to lay out any number of those who pride themselves on what they can do."

None of the Admiral's entertaining stories, however, have the pathetic interest of his last two chapters, in which he describes his intercourse with Mr. Lincoln in March and April, 1865. When the President saw that the war was nearing its end, he left Washington and came to City Point, in order to be in close communication with General Grant, and to be free to act without consulting his Cabinet. He arrived on March 24 and returned on April 10, only five days before his death. His last two weeks were thus passed on board of Porter's flagship, entirely unattended. He declined peremptorily all requests from his Cabinet to be allowed to join him, and refused to see the Vice-President when he came to visit him. He seemed to find in the Admiral a congenial spirit, and sat with him by the hour discussing the events of the day and telling the stories of which they reminded him. Toward the latter part of his visit the Admiral grew very anxious as to the safety of his guest, and never allowed the President to be out of his sight for a moment, night or day. With him—and with him alone—Mr. Lincoln entered Richmond while it was still in flames, the day after the surrender. Owing to a chapter of accidents they reached the city in a rowboat unannounced; on landing they started to walk through the streets.

"There was a small house at this landing, and behind it were some twelve negroes digging with spades. The leader of them was an old man sixty years of age. He raised himself to an upright position as we landed, and put his hands up to his eyes. Then he dropped his spade and sprang forward. 'Bress de Lord,' he said, 'dere is de great Messiah! I knowed him as soon as I seed him. He's bin in my heart fo' long years, an' he's cum at las' to free his chillun from deir bondage! Glory, Hallelujah!' And he fell upon his knees before the President and began kissing his feet. The others followed his example, and in a minute Mr. Lincoln was surrounded by these people, who had treasured up the recollection of him caught from a photograph, and had looked up to him for four years as the one who was to lead them out of captivity."

The rest of this extraordinary and ever memorable visit is told in equally graphic style. It forms a picture well worth preserving, and all the more valuable in that it is drawn by the sole survivor of the scene. While they remained in the vicinity of Richmond several suspicious persons attempted to board the Admiral's ship. One of them, he thinks, was Booth. The frequent recurrence of these visits thoroughly alarmed the Admiral as to the President's safety, and when the latter expressed his intention to return to Washington, the Admiral sent two ships with him as far as Baltimore, and directed the commanding officer never to leave his side until he saw his charge safely in the White House. The mission was successfully performed, and the officer returned to Hampton Roads and so reported to the Admiral. But Porter could free his mind from the idea, after what he seen at Richmond, that the President's life in danger. He therefore determined to go to Washington, take advantage of the intimacy lately established between the President and himself to dissuade him from exposing himself in public, and communicate his suspicions to the Cabinet. Had he started a day sooner perhaps he might have saved the President's life. When he reached Baltimore he heard that the President had been assassinated a few hours before.

The Founders of the American Republic: A history and biography, with a supplementary chapter on ultra-democracy. By Charles Mackay, author of 'Life and Liberty in America,' etc. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons. 1885. Pp. 434.

Dr. Mackay's account of the founders of the American republic is agreeably written, appreciative, and generally accurate. The founders under consideration are Washington (in two chapters), Adams, Jefferson, Franklin, and Madison. Perhaps he rates Jefferson too high, and does not do full justice to Adams as a political thinker certainly he takes pains to set forth all Adams's personal foibles and defects of temper, and says not a word of Jefferson's faults of character, which we suppose to have been as great and as manifest. We think, also, that he undervalues

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Washington's intellectual powers and military abilities. But if Washington and Adams are depreciated, it is only by comparison with the hearty admiration bestowed upon the other three.

It is not necessary to read the chapter upon "The Dangers of Ultra-Democracy," because we all know well enough what those dangers are, and we do not see that Dr. Mackay tells us anything about them which we have not already been told a hundred times. Nevertheless, the chapter is worth reading, if only to see what notion of the war of the rebellion it is possible for an intelligent Englishman to entertain in the year 1885. The author is a hearty believer in the rights of nullification and of secession, which he considers the corner-stone of our liberties, and represents General Jackson (of whom he gives an account which reads like a caricature) as a fanatical champion of centralization. We cannot quite make out, however, whether he regards nullification and secession as a right under the Constitution, or only as the natural right of revolution. We suppose the latter, inasmuch as (p. 359) he speaks of the "compact" established by "the Washingtonians, Federalists, and Centralizers," as holding "its ground, after a certain unstable fashion, till the election of Mr. Lincoln." Apparently, then, the Constitution in operation until 1861 was the work of Washington and his school, and they were certainly no believers in nullification. If, then, secession was an act of revolution, it is hard to see why the supporters of the Union are censured for suppressing it.

In the following extract the author's confusion of ideas has resulted in a remarkable confusion of language; but we hasten to say that it is the only ungrammatical sentence we have met with, Dr. Mackay's style being as a rule clear and correct: "From the very first the friends of these conflicting principles were at variance, and on more than one occasion the upholders of the rights of the several States and commonwealths that claimed to be supreme within their own boundaries, and called themselves Democrats, was at issue with the Washingtonians and Federalists, who called themselves Republicans, and would have established what was virtually an autocracy and not a democracy, if their idea of the one Republic, paramount to the thirteen Commonwealths, found acceptance" (p. 359).

At page 393 he says that "The time has come when the whole truth should be told, not alone as to the real origin, but as to the conduct of this unfortunate and needless war." Dr. Mackay's qualifications for accomplishing this desirable task may be judged from his statements that Bell, as well as Douglas and Breckinridge, were Democrats (p. 389); that Theodore Parker's was the "one only voice" raised in denunciation of Webster's pro-slavery attitude; that Mr. Lincoln's name "had scarcely been heard of beyond the limits of the State of Ohio" (p. 389); and that "the Southern army was composed of none but volunteers" (p. 395).

In other parts of the work we find a few errors, most of them of no importance. On page 101, Cornwallis's occupation of Yorktown is stated to have been after Washington reached Williamsburgh. On page 139, Washington is said to have been called from his retirement to take command of the army, "in view of an approaching rupture with Great Britain," it being really on occasion of an actual declaration of war against France. On page 362 the Hartford Convention is said to have "loudly and all but unanimously expressed its determination to secede from the Union [but how could a convention secede from the Union?] unless the central Government agreed to a peace with the mother country." Curtis for Custis (p. 25); Artemus for Artemas Ward (p. 63), confounding the humorist and the General; Poor Robin for Poor Richard (p. 296); and Livingstone for Livingston (p. 373) are no doubt slips of the pen; but as to the assertion (p. 401) that "the will of a bigoted and cruel majority led, in Europe and America, to the burning of witches," we should be glad to have mentioned the instances, with their date.

To expose all the errors and misstatements of this closing chapter, it would be necessary to quote nearly the whole of it; but we have room for only the following extraordinary paragraph, which, we think, requires no comment. It refers to the years before the rebellion:

> "Mr. Horace Greeley, the celebrated editor of the New York *Tribune*, who exercised a powerful influence over the Anti-Slavery and Republican party of the North and West, openly and persistently advocated separation. In lines that were continually recited in speeches and writings by the Abolitionists, he described the American flag as a 'flaunting lie' and 'a blood-stained rag' that ought to be torn down from every battlement and steeple in the North, and that should be hoisted half-mast high in sign of its degradation, in every American ship on the ocean. He advocated the independence of the Northern States, or any portion of them; or, if independence were not attainable, their incorporation with Canada, and a return to their allegiance to the 'Old Country'—anything rather than continuance in a union with the Southern States, that maintained and endeavored to extend negro slavery."

Now, Horace Greeley ran for the Presidency against General Grant, and on page 403, by way of depreciating Jackson's and Grant's qualifications for this office, we are told that their military achievements "proved sufficient to render nugatory those which were founded upon the culture, experience, and wise statesmanship of the vastly superior men who were opposed to them."

A History of the United States for Schools. With an introductory history of the discovery and English colonization of North America. By Alexander Johnston, author of a 'History of American Politics,' Professor of Jurisprudence and Political Economy in Princeton College. Henry Holt & Co. 1885. Pp. xx, 473.

Professor Johnston tells us in his preface what is the special purpose which has led him to add another to our many school histories of the United States. It is, in a word, because they all more or less miss the end of a text-book of history. They are in great part story books, vainly trying to compete for the pupil's interest at the imaginative period with books devoted to that single end. "History," he says, "is a task and a method of mental discipline; our school histories attempt to relieve it, as no one attempts to relieve grammar or arithmetic, by story telling." To the colonial period has been hitherto assigned an inordinate space. So much room has been given to Smith and Pocahontas, Putnam and the wolf, "that the real history of the United States is cramped, marred, and brought to a lame and impotent conclusion." "For much the same reasons, other topics not essential to the main subject, such as the tribal institutions of the Aborigines, and the Spanish conquests of Mexico and Peru, have been left untouched." Certainly; why not? Why should our school histories, or, for the matter of that, our grown-up histories, confound the Western Continent with the United States? Why should they give the impression that the history of the soil we live on is continuous from 1497 to 1587—a time when it is practically a blank? It comes to this, that boys and girls know who Cortes or Atahuallpa was, and do not know who William Tyndale or Henry of Navarre was; and yet if United States history for schools must include the sixteenth century, the two latter should be among its central figures, and not the two former.

Let us hear another capital paragraph from Professor Johnston's preface: "As the book is not intended to be a story book, so it is not intended to be a picture book. The pictures in this volume have been introduced with regret, and only as a yielding to the present prejudice, which denies an effective audience to the school history not so illustrated. It is to be hoped that the time will soon come when the space now surrendered to the graphic additions of the average schoolboy's pencil will be utilized to better purpose." Perfectly true. In fewer words: school committees can be persuaded by pictures to "introduce" a book, over the convictions and perhaps protests of competent teachers, who know them to be a nuisance and a humbug.

The preface quoted entire would be the best introduction and recommendation to this excellent text-book, which is intended to teach the rising citizens of the United States what their country is and has been in her steady, peaceful development. The critical periods and the brilliant exploits have not been omitted—they have been alluded to with appreciation and spirit in their right places; they have been mentioned in such a way as to tempt any one who loves such episodes to find out more about them. But they are exhibited as episodes—the occasional threads of gold or black in the cheerful but not gaudy fabric that forms the staple of our true history. As we took occasion to remark in a review of another meritorious history of the United States, we have in our national records abundant room for sentiment, but not an inch for sentimentality—the *sentiment* Mme. de Staël, which Castlereagh so well translated by "blarney." Professor Johnston's book strikes us as preëminently manly—for that matter, womanly, too; it is not the childish article which would apparently suit some "eminent educationists" who think a teacher's business is to amuse the little ones, and keep them amused up to the time when they have children of their own.

Where all is good it is hard to specify; but we would particularly select the development of the Southern colonies, the land operations of the war of 1812, the political movements from 1838 to 1848, and the comparative exhibition of the campaigns of the Civil War, as especially indicative of impartiality and due proportion in the writer's mind. In these, and indeed throughout, the writer is careful to put in, properly subordinated in type, the little circumstances so likely to be overlooked. We open at random, and find on page 167 a capital paragraph about the Jeffersonian Republicans; on page 286, a valuable note about city police; on page 318, a significant remark about the common necessity to McClellan and Lee of protecting the capital.

A variety of things we could wish altered or away. Must Governor Arnold's poor old mill again be inflated to bolster out the Vinland myth? Maclure determined the Northwest Passage in 1850 (not 1854). The States-General of France should not be named a Parliament (surely Professor Johnston knows what the French Parliaments were); and the King who got rid of it in 1614 was Louis XIII., not Louis XIV. It should be recorded that Endicott was reproved by his General Court for cutting out the cross, and that he submitted. The original form Carolana for Carolina is omitted—probably by a misprint. It is news to us that "William the Testy" was ever *Sir* William Kieft, or that *Sir* John Burgoyne was present at Saratoga. The romance of "Evangeline" ought not to have been allowed to stand as history with no allusion to Mr. Parkman's corrections. It should have been stated that Virginia ratified the Constitution most probably in the belief that she was the ninth State, while New York held a very different position, taking no part in the first Presidential election. But we have no wish to seem to detract from the merit of the book—the best

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school history, as it seems to us, which has yet been presented to the public.

Literature. By Herman Grimm. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1886.

THE men of letters in Germany are regarded as rather learned than cultivated, and are oftener spoken of as scholars. There have been some shining exceptions—some who recall the delightful humanism of Humboldt, and give us a new view, that has always something of surprise in it, of the capabilities of the intellectual life in the country of the professors. Herman Grimm is one of these men of culture, and the collection of his essays which is here translated is a sort of contribution which Germany seldom makes to foreign literature. The volume opens, pleasantly to American readers, with two articles, written at a score of years' distance from each other, upon Emerson, in which the author's own experience in being captivated, and his attempts to persuade some of his friends to acknowledge the charm, are told with an attractive mingling of criticism and humor; and the tribute to Emerson's genius, being the confession of a singularly sincere and simple mind, has a directness, spontaneity, and clearness which is to be commended to the notice of Emerson's American eulogists. The remaining essays are upon Voltaire and Frederick the Great, in connection with whom Grimm exposes the shallow facility of Macaulay's essay, and Dürer, Bettina von Arnim, and Dante's relation to the patriots of Italian unity. There are also some loosely-joined papers upon the brothers Grimm, the author's father and uncle, which make the most agreeable portion of the volume.

There is no need to speak of each separately. Grimm is a discursive writer, and has the ease of movement that characterizes a mind familiar with ideas and principles. His culture seems to be that of art and history, and reflections upon these in a general and comparative way strew his pages. The book is singularly free from prejudice; and even in dealing with the characteristics of the intellectual activity and interests of his countrymen he points out limitations and defects with what to our eyes seems wisdom, much as Renan occasionally enlightens the French in regard to themselves. So much serenity and suavity in literary style, so many penetrating and illuminating sentences dropped by the way, such intellectual clearness and refined utterance, are rare in any country; and though the topics of this volume are as a whole of slight interest to us, and limited value, one has the feeling, on laying aside the volume, that he has met with a man of exceptionally fine perceptions, human sympathies, and catholic interests, whose excellence of nature the essays but faintly report. The book itself, however, will prove remote from most readers.

The Postulates of English Political Economy. By the late Walter Bagehot. Putnams. 1885.

THE opening essay of this little book, which gives it its title, may be cordially recommended to all readers who do not see to their own entire satisfaction what Political Economy means and what it teaches. If, as is probably the case, such readers have been confused by the conflict of schools, and by the popular attacks upon the current system which we have imported from England, they will find in Mr. Bagehot a teacher who will clarify their ideas, and place the subject before them in such a light as to compel conviction. The most valuable feature of the lesson is that it does not leave the opposing side of the argument in misty confusion, but begins by showing the learner its strongest points. Indeed, we cannot but think that Mr. Bagehot exaggerates the difficulties in the way of the Political Economy of Smith and Mill being accepted outside of England. The comparison should rather be made between two methods of viewing the subject, both of which are found in all civilized countries, than between England and the Continent. A large majority of the recognized economists of Germany, France, and America are in substantial accord with our author, while it can hardly be claimed that the masses even in England are unanimous for the English system.

The objective point at which Mr. Bagehot aims is contained in the proposition that our system of economics "is not a questionable thing of unlimited extent, but a most certain and useful thing of limited extent." It is not a system of universal theorems, like those of geometry, but a set of theorems applicable solely to modern commercial peoples. However imperfect it may be, it affords the only method of foretelling the effects of new conditions upon the interests of the world. This is emphasized by comparing its method with other methods which men have attempted to apply to the case—the "All-case method," for example. This might have been put yet more strongly by showing that the limitations and imperfections which opposing writers so much dwell upon are common to all the sciences, are in fact necessary features of all generalized knowledge, physical as well as moral.

The two essays on the transferability of labor and capital, which form two-thirds of the book, were originally published in the *Fortnightly Review;* and it is intimated by Mr. Alfred Marshall, who supplies the preface, that they were intended as part of a book having for its object to free English political economy from the discredit into which it had fallen through being often misapplied. Although the restricted field which they cover prevents their having the value of a systematic work, they are well worth careful study as examples of the true economic method indicated in the opening essay.

The great value and the great charm of the whole book lie in the fact that it is the work of a man of business who supposes himself talking to men of sense, and who points out to both opposing parties the common ground on which their view and methods can be reconciled.

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Havergal, Frances R. Christmas Sunshine. Boston: H. H. Carter & Karrick. 75 cents.
Hale, Lucretia P., and White, Margaret E. Three Hundred Decorative and Fancy Articles for Presents, Fairs, etc. Boston: S. W. Tilton & Co.
Harcourt-Roe, Mrs. J. H. The Bachelor Vicar of Newforth: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
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Holtzendorff, Professor F. von. Handbuch des Völkerrechts, Part I. Berlin: Carl Habel.
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Magazine of American History. Vol. xiv, July-December, 1885.
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Paddack, J. R. Tabular Book-keeping. Cincinnati: R. Clarke & Co. $3.
Pater, W. Marius, the Epicurean: His Sensations and Ideas. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Parker, Theodore. Views of Religion. With an Introduction by James Freeman Clarke. Boston: American Unitarian Association. $1.
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Tennyson, Lord. Tiresias, and Other Poems. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
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Fine Arts.

"TAMING OF THE SHREW."

IF any one had predicted, five or even three years ago, that on the 4th of January, 1886, two German operas, one by Wagner and the other by a disciple of Wagner, would be produced in this city; that the tickets for *both* the new operas would be sold for the first two performances before the date of the first; and that this first representation would attract an audience of at least 6,000 spectators, at the two houses, he would have been voted a mad visionary whom one could not safely allow to roam at large. Yet this seeming miracle has been accomplished.

We have now in this city two excellent opera companies, whose aim is not to make money by showing off the vocal tricks of a prima donna and a tenor, but to familiarize the public with the greatest works of the greatest composers, interpreted in the most conscientious manner, and with no more regard for financial results than is consistent with the natural desire to clear expenses. The devotees of fashion and the lovers of music have, as it were, formed an informal association for the mutual realization of their respective aims and desires; and in a republic where state support of the opera is out of the question, such combinations doubtless represent the most satisfactory state of affairs that could be realized.

The company which has taken up its abode at the Academy of Music lays special stress on the national side of the enterprise. The name first chosen for it was "Opera Sung by Americans," or "Opera in English"; but, for the sake of euphony and to emphasize the patriotic element, this was changed to "American Opera." The repertory is to be international, with a leaning toward German opera. If there is no American name in this list, it is due simply to the fact that the country has so far produced no dramatic composer who has felt sufficiently inspired to write a grand opera regardless of the prospects of immediate performance. Wagner was snubbed on all sides early in his career, but the confidence in his genius led him on, whenever an opera was rejected, to seek consolation in composing another, confident that his day would come. The existence of a special "American Opera" company may prove a potent stimulus in rousing dormant musico-dramatic powers; but until a really meritorious work is forthcoming we shall have to be contented with such things as come to us from the effete monarchies of the Old World. And,

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after all, there is nothing in this borrowing inconsistent with the name of "American opera." For is not the essence of American nationality internationality? This country is peopled by emigrants from all parts of Europe, and if we ever have a "national" opera, it is to be hoped it will be international — uniting Italian sensuousness and French piquancy and clearness of form with German harmonic depth, variety, and dramatic vigor and realism.

Like the opera, most of the members of the orchestra were originally imported, though the majority have become American citizens. The conductor, also, was born in Germany, but Mr. Thomas came to this country at so early an age, and his name has become so identified with the progress of music in America, that it would have been as impossible to find a man more appropriate from the national point of view as it would be from the point of view of competency and experience. The remaining factors of the complicated operatic organism are almost purely American. The scenery, which receives special attention, is all painted by well-known native artists; the majority of the ballet are Americans, and the same is true of the chorus. And in regard to the leading vocalists the rule has been more strictly adhered to, that they must be natives of this country.

It is this last clause in the constitution of the American Opera Company that will have to bear the brunt of criticism. Perhaps it would have been wiser to follow simply the successful example of Carl Rosa, and give opera in English without reference to the nationality of the singers. But in some respects this experiment would have been less interesting, and at any rate we shall now no longer be open to the reproach that we leave the recognition of American vocal talent entirely to foreigners. Some of the vocalists in the American Opera Company have had wide experience as opera singers, while others have been suddenly promoted from operetta to grand opera. Until they have become accustomed to their new sphere it is therefore but just to make allowance for inevitable shortcomings. No such allowance, however, need be made in the case of Mme. L'Allemand, who takes the part of *Katharine* in the "Taming of the Shrew," not only because she is an experienced opera singer, but because her *Katharine* is a most clever and fascinating impersonation. Her dark style of beauty, together with the taste shown in her make-up, enable her to look her part to perfection. The mingled surprise and indignation are in the early scenes depicted in her face as realistically as her sweet, piteous humility when she has been tamed. She embodies Professor Dowden's conception of the character: "*Katharine*, with all her indulged wilfulness and violence of temper, has no evil in her; in her home-enclosure she seems a formidable creature, but when caught away by the tempest of *Petruchio's* masculine force, the comparative weakness of her sex shows itself; she who has strength of her own, and has ascertained its limits, can recognize superior strength, and, once subdued, she is the least rebellious of subjects." Mme. L'Allemand's voice is somewhat guttural in its lowest notes, but in its upper register it is delightfully clear, rich, sweet, and flexible. Mr. Lee's *Petruchio* cannot be said to be characterized by a "tempest of masculine force." The humorous possibilities of the part, too, are much greater than they seem in his hands; yet he takes pains with it and sings it satisfactorily. Miss Bensberg's *Bianca* is not a striking impersonation, but has its points of merit. Mr. Hamilton's *Baptista* is in one respect, and an important one, superior to any other rôle, viz., in distinct enunciation. Mr. Fessenden (*Lucentio*) and Mr. Stoddard (*Hortensio*) are well known to the New York public, and scarcely anything needs to be said of them beyond remarking that their parts were well fitted to their capacities.

One of the most interesting features of the performance was the fact that Mr. Theodore Thomas made his first appearance in many years as an operatic conductor. From the circumstance that he has no superior as a concert conductor it does not follow that he is specially qualified to be a good operatic conductor. There are specialists in conducting, as in everything else. But there is a class of conductors who are equally able as concert and as opera directors, including Bülow, Jahn, and Hans Richter; and Mr. Thomas gave indubitable evidence on Monday evening that he belongs to this class. His method of conducting is as quiet as at a Philharmonic concert; for his rule is to do all the difficult work at the rehearsals, so that no frantic gesticulations are needed when the public performance is given. Under his command his admirable orchestra — which is of course the best that has ever been heard in opera in this country — brought out all the beauties and subtle details of the score with marvellous distinctness. The chorus, also, contains, perhaps, better vocal material than has ever been brought together here, and everywhere gave evidence of the most careful and intelligent training. The ballet made its appearance in a special divertissement arranged by M. Bibeyran to the delightful rompish music of Rubinstein's Bal Masqué.

By choosing Goetz's "Taming of the Shrew" for the initial performance, Mr. Thomas added, to the many debts of gratitude our audiences owe him, the opportunity to become acquainted with one of the most successful operas of modern times; but at the same time he imposed on his singers a task of extraordinary difficulty, for there is hardly a single work in the operatic repertory that makes at the same time so many demands on the singer's vocal attention and his duties as an actor. In some respects it is even more difficult than Wagner's "Meistersinger," which inspired it; for in Wagner's opera the words are so neatly fitted to the song, and the melodic current is so broad, that the singer is irresistibly carried along with it; whereas in Goetz's opera the words and music do not so necessarily amalgamate, nor is the musico-dramatic current so irresistible. This is indeed the weak point in the "Taming of the Shrew," that both as a whole and in most of its details the music does not reflect the spirit of the text. It is often too serious, not to say sombre, for so sprightly and humorous a dramatic substratum. But if Goetz lacks Wagner's sense of dramatic fitness and his stirring climaxes, he succeeds better in imitating his declamatory precision and vigor and his symphonic orchestral accompaniment. In the orchestra lies the chief strength of Goetz. Many of the numbers have great individual merit, and throughout the opera there is a subtle attention to details and an esprit worthy of a French composer. It is stated that Goetz at first wrote the score without drums and trombones, but added the trombones when the opera was produced in Vienna. Subsequently he seems to have also added the drums, for they were in use in Mr. Thomas's orchestra. Musical readers need hardly be told in conclusion that Hermann Goetz was, like Bizet, one of those gifted and promising opera composers who seem to be fated to die young. His opera was first produced in 1874 at Mannheim, when the composer was thirty-six years of age. Two years later he died, leaving an unfinished opera score, "Francesca von Rimini," which was afterward completed by a Herr Frank.

"THE MEISTERSINGER."

THE first production in America of what will some day be Wagner's most popular opera is an event of historic significance. The performance itself, too, was of a very high order of merit, and therefore most enjoyable. In view of the fact that the German Opera Company, during their recent absence in Philadelphia, gave a performance every evening, it was to be feared that sufficient time would not remain to rehearse Wagner's comic opera properly. It is a work of extraordinary difficulty, as may be inferred from the fact that when it was first produced in Munich under Dr. Hans von Bülow, in 1868, eight months were devoted to its preparation, during which sixty-six rehearsals were held.

No wonder that a few days ago the last rehearsal of "Die Meistersinger" at the Metropolitan, which lasted eight hours, revealed a number of weak points. But it also revealed another thing — Herr Seidl's extraordinary genius as operatic conductor. Every weak point was "spotted" on this occasion — for he knows the whole score by heart — so that when it came to the public performance, the smoothness and animation of the ensemble was little short of a miracle, it being hardly necessary to make any allowance for the difficulty of the task, the limited number of rehearsals, and the unpropitious state of the atmosphere. Herr Seidl was deservedly and repeatedly called before the curtain, with the principals, after each act; for the enthusiasm of the audience was such as is only witnessed at a Wagnerian *première;* and a Wagnerian audience is sufficiently intelligent to recognize the supreme importance of having a conductor of Herr Seidl's energy and ability. Although we have heard "Die Meistersinger" more than a dozen times abroad, and although in Vienna and Munich, where the opera has been on the repertory for a number of years, some of the details are placed in a clearer light, yet for general animation we have never heard a performance superior, if equal, to Monday evening's; and this is in the first place due to Herr Seidl's thorough appreciation of Wagner's intentions. He put so much variety and "go" into his *tempi* that the performance never dragged for a moment; and although the necessary cuts were not so extensive as those made in some German cities, the opera lasted only four hours and twenty minutes, including waits.

Of the vocalists it must be said in general that they were equal to their tasks. Frau Kraus's *Eva* is one of her most satisfactory impersonations, and Herr Stritt's *Walter* is the best thing he has done here yet. Herr Staudigl sang *Pogner's* address nobly, and Herr Fischer was an impressive *Sachs*, though suffering from hoarseness, which prevented him from fully justifying the reputation he has secured in this rôle abroad. Brandt made as much as possible of the rôle of *Magdalena*, and the naïve and sportive *David* was well acted and sung by Herr Krämer, the husband of Frau Krämer-Widl, who made his début on this occasion. The comic part of *Beckmesser* was in the hands of Herr Kemlitz, who, without over-acting, brought out the grotesque humor of his part in a realistic manner. Much praise must be awarded the chorus of apprentices and the general chorus for their contributions to the success of the performance. Even the immensely difficult comic choruses of cobblers, tailors, and bakers in the last act were well done. It should be stated that in this scene the chorus was strengthened by the voluntary coöperation of a number of the active members of several of our leading German societies whose enthusiasm for Wagner, and their desire to have him correctly appreciated by American audiences, led them to submit, without any other recompense, to the arduous labor of rehearsing.

To sum up: the indications are that "Die Meistersinger" will soon become a favorite of the New York public, and never again be allowed to be absent from the repertory.

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